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**Curriculum innovation through teacher certification: Evaluation of a government intervention and its effects on teacher development and English language pedagogy in South Korea**

Choi, Tae Hee

*Awarding institution:*  
King's College London

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**Author:**Tae Hee Choi

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**Curriculum innovation through teacher  
certification:  
Evaluation of a government intervention and its  
effects on teacher development and English  
language pedagogy in South Korea**

**Taehee Choi**

**A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements  
for a PhD degree at King's College London**

**School of Social Science and Public Policy  
Department of Education and Professional Studies  
King's College, London**

**July 2013**

## **Abstract**

Teacher certification schemes are used in increasing numbers of contexts worldwide, including Korea. Despite their high stakes such as their use in decisions regarding promotion, as well as the related cost, there has been relatively little documentation of their implementation procedures and subsequent impact. This thesis contributes to filling this research gap through documenting the procedure and impact of one such scheme.

The aims of the scheme in question, known as the 'Teaching English in English' scheme, are developing teachers' expertise in relation to building students' communicative competence, promoting English as the medium of instruction, and increasing the quality of English education in Korea. The present research adopts a qualitative interpretive approach and a case study method. The data collected include policy documents and practical documents generated during the certification procedure; interviews with eighteen different stakeholders including the policy makers, teacher assessors, teacher trainers, and English language teachers; and observation of the procedures, including the assessed lessons and teacher training. This study draws on research about language teaching expertise, teacher cognition and development, English language teaching (ELT) innovation, policy enactment and teacher evaluation.

The study contributes to understanding of curriculum innovations by establishing a tentative relationship among those factors which were identified as shaping the process and impact of curriculum innovations such as their characteristics, contextual constraints and supports, and the stakeholders' personal beliefs and identities. It also presents a complexified view of the process and impact of teacher evaluation and teacher development. This study invites all who are involved in education to revisit the meaning of success regarding ELT-policy interventions, draws attention to the need for evaluating their realised process against a well-defined concept of localised ELT expertise, and contributes to our understanding of the requirements underpinning their success and the effect they have on teacher development.

## Acknowledgements

This PhD thesis has been supported in many ways by many people and institutions, all of whom deserve thanks. First and foremost I am grateful to my participants, particularly, “Jack”, “Maria”, “Emily”, “Ginny”, “Irving”, “Anny”, “Janet”, “Felicity”, “Sam”, “Hazel”, “Stefan”, “Bonnie”, “April”, “Charles”, “Eugene”, “Rima”, and “Kitty”. They have given me their time and ideas, provided me with access to their classrooms and all the materials needed for this research.

I owe a debt of gratitude to all my academic and professional inspirers. I am deeply grateful to my supervisors, Dr. Martin Dewey and Dr. Nick Andon. With enthusiasm and patience, they have helped me develop and express my ideas, taken pride in my research, and helped me achieve integrity as a researcher. I also appreciate that Dr. Dewey has given me a new understanding of my English usage as being merely different rather than deficient, which will empower my future students as well; and that Dr. Nick Andon has provided a thorough mentoring on my teaching at King’s College London, which has built my confidence in teaching in higher education.

I would like also to thank many other people who have helped me develop my academic calibre, particularly, Professor Constant Leung who sharpened my presentation and writing skills through joint presentation and paper writing; my research group who have listened to my ideas and given feedback at Research Workshop in Language and Literacy, particularly Professor Ben Rampton, Professor Brian Street, Dr. Roxy Harris, Dr. Alan Fortune and Professor Guy Cook; and Professor Meg Maguire who generously provided ‘private tutoring’ on policy research.

My mentors in Korea also deserve thanks. Some have inspired me to be a better researcher through role modelling various qualities that are needed. Others introduced me to various professional and academic fields. Among others, Professor Kim, Choong Bae, who was my personal tutor during the BA, has shown me the importance of perseverance and diligence; Professor Choi, Inn-chull, who invited me to a textbook writing project, helped me appreciate the importance of assessment in language learning and teaching; Professor Park, Kyung-Ja who was my personal tutor

for my unfinished MA at Korea University, has taught me the joy from learning and teaching; Ms. Choi, Ok-hee helped me develop various skills and knowledge as a teacher educator; and finally, Ms. Lois ChunOk Choi enlightened me about the importance, complexity and excitement of curricular innovation.

Thirdly, I would like to thank my dear friends. Timothy Burris gave me the courage and crucial assistance to pursue my MA at the University of Hawaii at Manoa and this PhD. He revised my applications to those degree programmes, read and edited my endless drafts, and imparted his wisdom of life. Three other friends, Nelly Andon, Marie-José Loncelle-Burris, and John Sitzgerald of Howland Way, made England a home away from home by inviting our family to their houses and letting us taste a rooted life from time to time. Thanks also go to my fellow PhD students who made my 'life' at G/11 Waterloo Bridge Wing more bearable and even enjoyable, particularly, Tiffany Chiu, Emily Dawson, and Ucan Serkan who shared their tips to make breakthroughs, and Mili, Nicola Bretscher, Sophie Kellsall, Rudy Leyva, Polly Mercer and Young Chun Kim who 'suffered' together.

Another raft of thanks must go to the various funders of this PhD. This PhD was made possible by generous support by the Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education. The Sir Richard Stapley Educational Trust, HEA UK Travel Grant, and various grants from King's College London including Small Bursaries Fund for Postgraduate Research, Lacey French Travel Bursaries, and Graduate School Conference Grant, as well as specific conference bursaries, all enabled me to participate in several conferences and seminars while I carried out this research.

Last but not least, my family must be thanked for their unswerving support and love. Special thanks to my late mother, Ms. Jeongsook Jo, who always trusted me and taught me self-discipline, and my mother-in-law, Ms. Keysoon Yi, who has fed and clothed our whole family when it is she who should be taken care of. My profuse apologies and kisses to my dearest husband, Seonkyo Jeong, and my daughter, Eunie Jeong, who endured the void I left them in throughout my degree seeking. Despite this list of acknowledgements, it remains to say that the mistakes and opinions of this thesis are my own and, for them, I take full responsibility.

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## **Chapter 1      Introduction**

### **1.1 Background**

My academic interest in teacher evaluation was first incited by a conversation with a supervisor in the English educational policy department at Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education. She complained to me that there were few experts on teacher evaluation, and that it was hard for her to find a good consultant for that matter. Another experience that led me to this direction was my involvement with developing a teacher certification system, which was instituted to develop English teachers' ability to teach English in a communicative way with English as the medium of instruction. The scheme was piloted in Seoul for a semester and then expanded to other regions in South Korea. However, I was not confident about the validity of evaluations required for the certification, and I thought I should have exerted more effort to make the scheme reflect teachers' daily reality. Thus piqued, my interest was crystallized into a PhD project through a phone call from my colleague who was distressed about the certification scheme. Talking with her led me to think about aspects of teacher evaluation to which I had not previously given full consideration: its validity and impact and, particularly, teachers' personal experiences regarding it. I realized that teacher evaluation should also consider the affective reaction of the teachers. Rather than being seen as imposing a view of expertise which seems unreachable, it should be seen as helping teachers to identify both their strengths and weaknesses and providing teachers with opportunities for learning (Shulman, 2009).

So begun, my interest has become more focused and has developed into research questions through a process of ensuing document research on teacher evaluation in South Korea, pursuing news and reports on the newly instituted schemes, and communicating with different people sharing their experiences of being evaluated or of evaluating others. The period during which I was developing my research



questions coincided with an upsurge of publications on teacher development and their pedagogical changes instigated by numerous curricular innovations both in the UK and the US, which has provided further insight into the phenomena I started to investigate. In particular, I draw on literature on curricular innovations, teacher evaluation, public policy analysis, and language teachers' expertise, cognition, and development.

I started broadly to investigate the process and impact of teacher evaluation on English language teachers. All teachers are evaluated through three different evaluation schemes annually, the Teacher Promotion Scheme (TPS), the Performance Pay (PP) scheme, and the Teacher Development Appraisal (TDA). All these schemes are discussed in detail in Chapter Two; however, to briefly introduce them here, the TPS is an evaluation conducted in order to inform decisions regarding promotion and relocation of teachers; the PP is a monetary reward for those who prove themselves productive based on criteria largely decided by the government but locally decided in detail at individual schools; the TDA aims to assist teachers' continuous efforts to professionally develop themselves by engaging teachers in activities such as self-identifying areas for further development, establishing plans to improve those areas, and self-evaluating their developmental efforts. The TEE scheme was added partly as an attempt to fine tune the direction of English language teachers' professional development and partly to respond to the public's dissatisfaction with the quality of English language education as perceived by the government. The already intensive evaluation activities concerning teachers in this context set a distinctive background for the TEE scheme and affect the implementation and impact of the scheme on English language teachers. Therefore, with other evaluation schemes at the background, this thesis aims to investigate the impact of the TEE scheme on teachers, their pedagogic practice and any other areas not identified by the scheme, the details of which are discussed below.

## 1.2 Research objectives and questions

This thesis investigates the effectiveness and impact of an English language teacher certification called the Teaching English in English (TEE) scheme. The scheme forms a part of an English language teaching (ELT) curricular innovation in the South Korean context, which aims to change English education from teaching about English to developing students' communicative skills. Even though ELT innovations are observed in increasingly more contexts, as Kiely (2012) points out, there is little documentation of such activities nor their evaluation. This thesis aims to fill this research gap. The research on ELT innovations and their evaluation is particularly scarce when it comes to a certification of in-service teachers for whom English is not their first language<sup>1</sup> (See sections 2.8 and 3.1.6 for further discussion of related issues). In order to conduct a research study which addresses this gap, the following three research questions are posed:

1. What impact does a teacher certification scheme such as the TEE in South Korea have on English as a second language teachers, their beliefs, and their practices?
2. What factors influence the effectiveness of such a scheme?
3. How could the scheme be improved at the levels of design and implementation?

It should be noted that the TEE certification involves a rigorous and arduous procedure of assessment (See Chapter 6 for detailed discussion of the scheme). Teachers can be certified at two levels, basic and advanced. In order to qualify to apply for the certification, candidates for both levels are required to obtain a

---

<sup>1</sup> Many researchers problematise the terms such as the first language (L1) and the second language (L2). For instance, G. Cook (2010) suggests the terms 'own language' and 'new language' respectively to replace the terms above, pointing out the limited utility of the terms L1 and L2 in reflecting the relationship between the languages and their users in this multilingual society. While agreeing to his arguments, for the economy and the wide use of the terms, I will use L1 and L2 in this thesis.

certain professional development score through participating in various professional development activities such as attending teacher training programmes and winning a competition for their action research. The basic level certification comprises two phases while the advanced level comprises four. Passing the assessment in one phase allows participants to continue to the next phase. Both levels of certification involve a written test and an assessment of teaching. The advanced level has two additional phases in between: a speaking test and one-month training course which includes three additional assessments of teaching.

Due to this strong emphasis on assessment, this thesis discusses the effectiveness of the TEE scheme against the most commonly used quality criteria of teacher evaluation, that is, validity, reliability, and usability (Dwyer, 1995). (For detailed discussion of these terms and related issues, see 4.3). Using these 'positivistic' criteria may be in tension with the overall constructivist approach of this thesis. However, I utilize these concepts in the hope that this measure will increase the usefulness of this research to policy writers in the context who funded this research. The discussion will not be limited to its design, but will be expanded to the scheme as realized by different actors and experienced by teachers. The scheme is also evaluated in terms of its impact on teachers and their pedagogic practice. This thesis, thus, relates to the wider issue of professional development and change through curricular innovations as well as teacher evaluation.

### **1.3 Outline of the thesis**

The discussion of this research as well as its implications will be organized into nine chapters, including this introductory chapter, **Chapter 1** which provides a brief background to this study and an overview of the thesis as a whole. In **Chapter 2**, the educational context of South Korea will be discussed to help readers understand my evaluation of the TEE scheme as well as teachers' views of it. The topics to be discussed are the features of educational policies, the educational system, application process for tertiary education, teacher evaluation,

English as a school subject, the national curriculum, the systems for licensing and developing English teachers, and the TEE scheme.

The following two chapters discuss mainly five themes of literature which this thesis draws on. **Chapter 3** explores the nature of language teaching expertise which the TEE scheme aims to develop. Establishing the nature and components of expertise will help determine the validity of the scheme. It starts with discussion of the literature on expertise of teaching, which highlights the situated and integrated nature of expertise and the need for teachers' professional discretion as a navigator through different discourses about teaching expertise (e.g., Leung, 2009; Tsui, 2003). It emphasizes the important role of teacher cognition in relation to their pedagogic practice (e.g., Borg, 2006; D. Woods, 1996), and the fact that it forms teachers' identity and is interconnected with affect (e.g., Clandinin & Connelly, 1995; Russell & Munby, 1992). It also investigates the nature and process of teacher development which will help evaluate the procedure adopted in the scheme to develop teachers (e.g., Guskey, 2000; Kubanyiova, 2009).

**Chapter 4** discusses literature which is directly related to the TEE scheme. It discusses studies on ELT curricular innovations, particularly on their success factors and the framework for their analysis (e.g., Tribble, 2012; Wedell, 2009), studies on teacher evaluation about issues related to teacher evaluation as a tool for teacher development and change as well as quality criteria of teacher evaluation (e.g., Dawyer, 1995; Gitomer, 2009b; Millan & Darling-Hammond, 1990; Stronge & Tucker, 2003); and finally, research on policy analysis which provides the framework and tools to capture the policy realization process (e.g., Ball, Maguire, & Braun, 2012; McNeil & Coppola, 2006).

In **Chapter 5**, aspects of research methodology are presented and discussed. I start with my interpretive constructive approach toward research and justification for adopting a case study method. After a brief overview of data collection procedure, I discuss the tools I used to ensure the quality of my research, such as

keeping a research diary, and discussing my codes and coding process with various people within the research group as well as with my supervisors. I consider the issue of ethics before I introduce data collection tools including policy documents, semi-structured interviews as well as observations of lessons, teacher training and assessment procedure and stimulated recall afterwards. The data was analyzed through thematic content analysis, and I used the software NVivo to organize my data.

Chapters 6 to 8 will present my documentation and analysis of the procedures and impact of the TEE scheme, which certifies teachers at two levels, basic and advanced. Throughout the discussion, I evaluate schemes against the quality criteria of teacher evaluation, that is, validity, reliability, and usability (Dwyer, 1995). The first two chapters follow the sequence of the certification scheme.

**Chapter 6** discusses the scheme as designed based on relevant documents, and evaluates the official components of the scheme, that is, obtaining the prerequisite credit from professional development activities, taking the written test, and being assessed for their teaching, which are common to both levels, and additionally mandatory teacher training which is required for the advanced level of certification. It also presents post-certification outcomes.

**Chapter 7** evaluates the scheme as practiced based on participants' accounts of their experiences, my observation of the evaluation procedure, as well as documents generated during the implementation phases. It also discusses participants' perceptions of the scheme. It follows the sequence of certification from the point of view of the participants. Therefore, it starts with their decision on whether or not to be certified, the official phases of certification according to the levels, and concludes with post-certification.

**Chapter 8** discusses the opportunities planned and realised for teacher development by the scheme as well as impact of the scheme, based on teachers' accounts and my observation of the evaluation procedure. It discusses the opportunities for achieving the stated aims of the scheme in relation to teaching

of English; that is, development of students' communicative competence and expanding English as the medium in the design of the scheme. It then discusses realized opportunities for these promoted changes during the implementation phase. The impact of certification concerns both planned and unplanned impact. The impact on planned areas is discussed in relation to teachers' awareness, abilities and attitudes and to their practices. The unplanned impact was observed in relation to teachers' emotions and identities.

Finally, **Chapter 9** evaluates the TEE scheme as a whole based on the discussion in the previous chapters. It identifies the factors which affect the effectiveness and impact of the scheme. It also provides practical implications of this research for curricular innovations and teacher certification. Additionally, it discusses theoretical implications for the policy enactment theory and suggests ways to extend it. Reflection on my experience conducting this PhD research concludes this thesis.

## **Chapter 2      Educational Context of South Korea**

### **2.0 Introduction**

In this chapter, I discuss the educational context of South Korea, which forms the background of the Teaching English in English (TEE) certification scheme which I investigate in this thesis. Understanding the context is crucial for policy process research because the context decides the compatibility, evolution, perceptions, and impact of a policy (Ball, Maguire, Braun, et al., 2012; Kiely, 2012; Murray & Christison, 2012; Waters & Vilches, 2001). It also helps understand what participants consider when they engage with the TEE scheme. The chapter starts with a discussion of the educational culture in the context and narrows down its focus through English language education and finally to the agendas set by the TEE scheme.

The aspects of the general educational culture to be discussed include the features of educational policies in South Korea (2.1); the educational system from primary to tertiary education (2.2); application procedures for tertiary education (2.3); and teacher evaluation (2.4). Then the discussion narrows its focus to English language education (2.5), the aims and content of a national curriculum pertaining to English (2.6); the procedure for licensing English language teachers, and the professional development opportunities available to them. Finally, it discusses the TEE scheme in terms of its goals and the pedagogic practice it promotes (2.7). Two things to be noted are, first, that the description focuses on the situation particularly between 2010 and 2012, when the research data was collected, although changes that happened in the past decade and those which have been planned and announced by the Ministry of Education (MOE) subsequently will also be discussed if they have relevance to this thesis. Second, the description of English language education focuses on secondary schools, the level at which the case study for this research has been conducted, unless specified otherwise.

## 2.1 Features of educational policies

Current educational policies in South Korea have the following features. First, educational policies are closely related to the political agendas of the ruling party rather than educational rationality (H. S. Shin, 2005, p. 22). This characteristic is reflected in the frequent replacement of the ministers of education: between January 2000 and December 2010, fifteen different ministers (counterpart of UK Secretaries of State for Education) served the ministry which governs education. This instability leads to frequent changes in educational policies and the production of government-led educational initiatives. To illustrate, since 1995 numerous innovative ideas of different scales have been implemented (ibid. p.19). The areas of innovation include teacher training (e.g., diversification of the providers and formats), and teacher evaluation, the educational system (e.g., the expansion of compulsory education), the national curriculum (e.g., the National English Ability Test and reinforcement of communication-oriented English lessons), and teacher evaluation (e.g., tying school evaluation<sup>2</sup> with individual teachers' performance-related pay). There is an overload of innovation, which often leads teachers to experience innovation fatigue, burn-out and extreme stress (Stronach & Morris, 1994); teachers cannot seriously engage with all new innovations (Rudduck & Fielding, 2006). The emotional responses of teachers to the TEE scheme against the backdrop of this volatile policy context will be explored in Chapter 7.

Another feature of educational policy in South Korea is that the general directions and agendas of the educational policies are centrally decided and managed by the MOE<sup>3</sup>, although the details are left to be settled by the regional educational

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<sup>2</sup> To be discussed in section 2.4.

<sup>3</sup> The status and name of the ministry often change due to priority of the respective governments in relation to educational agendas; for instance, it used to



offices, and sometimes by individual schools. For instance, the MOE decided that English education will aim to increase students' communicative competence (to be discussed in section 2.8.1) and suggested several guidelines (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2005a). Accordingly, Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education came up with a detailed plan to achieve this aim localising the suggested executive plans. The plan is called School Managed Innovation of Learning English (SMILE) project, the main aim of which is improvement of students' communicative competence (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2008b). This centralisation of major decisions in the MOE arguably creates more coherence in terms of educational policy making, which is reflected in the persistent agenda of building students' communicative competence for the last two decades which will be detailed in section 6.1. This long-term initiative may explain the unvaried acceptance in principle of the agenda of teaching communicatively by teachers, despite low take up of it in actual pedagogic practice (Littlewood, 2007; Yook, 2010). Teachers' perceptions of the agenda of the TEE scheme and its actual impact on their pedagogic practice will be discussed in Chapters 7 and 8 respectively.

The last feature which is observed in most educational policies is policy copying or borrowing. Whenever an educational problem is identified, the research institutes which are assigned to conduct research to inform policy designs and implementation look to other countries. For instance, the MOE (2010b) justifies the introduction of the Teacher Development Appraisal (TDA) (this will be discussed later in detail in section 2.4) quoting the US President Obama's rationalization for reinforcing teacher evaluation; Yi and Gwak (2009) base their proposal for the scheme on commonality they drew out from the use of teacher evaluation in the US, the UK, France, Australia, and Japan. To be fair, however, the

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be the Ministry of Education and Human Resource Development until 2008, and Ministry of Education, Science and Technology until 2012.

specific details of a policy are decided through research and consultation at the local context, rather than simply borrowing a policy. For instance, in the process of instituting the TDA, the MOE held a series of public hearings that invited various stakeholders, for example, the presidents of teacher associations, the representatives of parent associations, professors, supervisors of educational offices, the president of the principals' association, and representatives of NGOs concerned with education (Korean Educational Development Institute, 2004, p. 6). Policy copying and borrowing raise the issue of compatibility of the policy in a new context. This is particularly a case for educational policies because teaching is a socially situated event as will be discussed in Chapter 3. Discussion of this issue of compatibility will be resumed in section 4.1.1.

## **2.2 The South Korean education system and 'fever' for higher education**

The education system in South Korea has a 6-3-3 structure, that is, 6 years of primary school, 3 years of junior high and 3 years of senior high school education (Y. Kim, 2006). Currently, compulsory education fully-funded by the state encompasses nursery education which starts at age 5, and covers primary school education which starts at seven years old and covers Year 1 through 6 and junior high school education which starts at thirteen years old and covers Year 7 through Year 9. Senior high school education which concerns Year 10 through Year 12 is only partially funded by the state; however, most of the population participate in education at this level. Thus, for the majority, school education ends at the school year of 12<sup>th</sup> grade of the US system and year 12 of the UK system.

After senior high school, students either apply for a job or pursue tertiary education. The tertiary educational institutes are divided into two tracks, junior colleges and universities. Junior colleges involve two years of education with a strong vocational and technical emphasis, providing certificates in professions such as opticians and nursery teachers. University entails four or more years of education and covers various fields; certain majors may lead to certification such

as a teaching certificate, a nursing certificate or a medical qualification, which allows successful graduates to sit for the relevant regional or national licensure assessments and evaluations.

South Korea has the highest rate for tertiary education among the countries which belong to OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) including the US and Japan, reflecting a national culture which emphasises education (Seth, 2002). In 2011, 82% of high school graduates registered for tertiary education, which is in marked contrast to the 40% of secondary school leavers who proceed to tertiary education in European countries (Tak, 2011). This strong interest in tertiary education makes assessments for college entrance have a strong wash back effect on pedagogic practice, particularly at the senior high school level, which will be discussed in Chapters 7 and 8.

Education in South Korea is considered as a success story in many contexts, particularly for its successful performances in the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), an international study which aims to evaluate education systems worldwide by testing the skills and knowledge of 15-year-old students. South Korea has continuously outperformed most countries in this study, conducted every three years: for instance, it ranked second after Shanghai-China in the 2009 study out of 65 countries (OECD, 2010). This successful result as well as the inference that its investment into education has led to its dramatic economical growth has meant that in terms of its educational system, South Korea is considered by many countries as a model to be emulated (e.g., Sánchez, Salinas, & Harris, 2011; Stefan, 2005).

### **2.3 Application for tertiary education**

There are two types of application to tertiary education: winter application and rolling application. During the traditional winter application, the three most important elements that determine entrance to tertiary education are the student record, the Grade Point Average (GPA) from senior high school as well as the

result from the College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT) which students take toward the end of the third year of senior high school. The CSAT is comparable to the Advanced Level General Certificate of Education (A-level): it determines whether candidates have the academic ability required for university education. Students take exams on the subjects of their choice or on all subjects offered (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation, 2011). However, the details of the two schemes differ. For instance, the subjects of the CSAT are divided into Korean, English, math, social studies/sciences/vocations, and additional foreign language/Chinese characters. Students are tested only once and this single test covers the entire three-year senior high school curriculum, unlike the A-level where students are tested twice, one on the first two modules at the end of the first year and the other on the other two modules at the end of the second year. In addition, the CSAT results are not related to obtaining any certificate. Once applicants pass the first phase of screening through this document-based assessment, they take various other assessments designed by the institutes, including interviews, essay tests, and portfolio evaluation.

There are also rolling admissions where the universities select students based on their student records, GPA, and relevant documents which demonstrate that the students qualify for their chosen category of rolling admission, as well as the recommendation letter of the head teacher; the mark from the CSAT may or may not be considered. While the winter admission emphasizes general academic capacity measured by the 'standard' procedure, the rolling admission allows the institute to recruit students with talent in a specific field such as science or arts as well as students who meet other categories that the institution specifies, for example, social inclusion where students from a marginalized background are given opportunities (Seoul National University, 2011).

It is widely acknowledged that most senior high school students will only pay attention to content that will be covered in either the school exams which count toward GPA or the CSAT, which in turn influences what teachers teach in

classrooms (I.-C. Choi, 2008). The fact that GPA is considered in any type of application procedure assigns high significance to the marks students gain in school exams. Even though the CSAT is not needed for all types of applications, because students generally do not decide until at a late stage which types of application they are going to use, almost all students prepare for the CSAT.

This fact significantly affects teachers' decisions about whether to adopt any government initiatives. For instance, for the past two decades, most ELT innovations including the TEE scheme feature teaching English in a communicative way. It is widely accepted, however, that most teachers are still emphasising grammatical knowledge and translation of texts, rather than students' productive communicative skills which the government promotes. This lack of change in English teachers' pedagogical practice is largely attributed to the national college entrance exam (Seth, 2002; Tak, 2011). As discussed in section 2.2., passing the test is the priority of education in South Korea, and it is receptive skills and grammatical knowledge that are focused on in the exam.

One more thing to be noted regarding the application procedure is that it can cause considerable tension, often exacerbated by its constantly changing nature. In recent years the system has been revised almost on an annual basis. One recent change, introduction of the admission tutors system (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2009c) was perceived as a drastic departure from traditional application procedure which intended to exclude the possibility of subjectivity as much as possible and has raised public concerns about its reliability and fairness (J. G. Kim, 2011). This is because the system allows for subjective judgement of the admission tutors in deciding the suitability of a candidate for entrance to an educational institution. Because of instability of the application procedure, combined with the huge pressure to enter the more prestigious universities because of the perceived career advantages these provide, parents invest huge amounts of money in private tutoring for their children (S. H. Ahn, 2008; W. K. Yi, 2008). The TEE scheme is partially motivated by a desire to

counter this trend. Effectiveness of the scheme in this regard will be discussed in Chapter 6.

## **2.4 Teacher evaluation**

This section discusses teacher evaluation schemes that apply to English teachers, because the perceptions of the TEE scheme may be influenced by the existence of other teacher evaluation schemes. There used to be only one teacher evaluation scheme, the Teacher Promotion Scheme (TPS), which has lasted for several decades since its introduction in 1964. However, in 2001, the Performance Pay (PP) scheme was added, and then in 2010, the Teacher Development Appraisal (TDA). All of these schemes are conducted annually, with the result that teachers in South Korea undergo excessive levels of evaluation.

There are two major drives that are officially stated: public dissatisfaction with the quality of education (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2009b) and the 2003 recommendation by OECD to revise educational policy in such a way as to promote teachers' professional development (Ministry of Education Science and Technology & Chungcheongbuk-do Office of Education, 2009). (The Teaching English in English scheme also began in response to these drives but for its subject specificity it will be separately discussed in section 2.8.) Thus, these two added schemes are measures intended to induce teacher development and change and increase teachers' accountability. Teacher evaluation is thus conducted through the aforementioned three schemes, the TPS, the TDA, and the PP, and for the case of English teachers, additionally through the TEE scheme.

To introduce the details of the scheme, the TPS is a basis for promotion, relocation, and awards (J. H. Park, 2008). The evaluation is composed of 5 areas (See Appendix 1 for the evaluation schedule):

- Personality as an educator, which concerns commitment to the profession and duties, integrity and personal bearings, understanding of and affection for students, and respect from students and parents.

- Attitude as a public servant, which concerns possession of appropriate educational principles, diligence and initiatives, cooperation with other colleagues and accommodating different students; and being active and voluntary.
- Teaching which concerns preparing lessons, enthusiasm for teaching, organization of curriculum and use of materials, and assessments.
- Guidance in school life which concerns assistance to student development and career choice, help with school events and implementation of school policy, understanding of students and their concerns, and health and safety of students.
- Research and tasks which concern professionalism, task performance, contribution to school objectives, and effectiveness.

The evaluation is norm-referenced and there are four grades, the percentage for each grade being set: *Su*, the highest, can be given to 20% of the teachers; *Wu*, 40%; *Mi*, 30%; *Yang*, the lowest, 10%. The fact that the evaluation allocates the percentage of each grade, particularly the lowest grade regardless of teachers' performance, along with its lack of reliability and transparency due to abstractness of areas of evaluation has led to criticism of the evaluation (H.-K. Kim, 2005; I. Kim et al., 2004). Due to the criticism and other factors, the TPS evaluation was revised in 2007. The forceful marking scheme has remained unchanged. To ensure reliability and transparency, however, a multi-party evaluation was adopted: the evaluators now include three colleagues such as department heads and teachers of the same subject group, in addition to the traditional evaluators of the head and the deputy head. The result of the appraisal is now communicated to the individual when it is requested.

The second oldest scheme, Performance Pay (PP), was instituted in 2001. According to the manual for the PP implementation, the stated aims are to reward teachers who put substantial effort into education and achieve good educational outcomes, as well as to motivate all teachers to exert their utmost; the ultimate

goal of the PP is to increase teachers' pedagogical expertise and school effectiveness (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2010a, p. 26). The proportion of the salary that is paid through this scheme has increased from 10% in 2001 to the maximum of 70% in 2011 (*ibid.*). Through my experience of teaching in the context, I observed that this change made many teachers feel financially insecure; additionally, senior teachers perceived this as threatening, because it departs from the traditional culture where seniority is viewed with respect. The manual (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2010a) clarifies that the length of career, which used to be the sole criterion for deciding pay before 2001, cannot be used as a criterion. This scheme has become more controversial because it was decided that part of the PP will be decided by the performance of the school from 2011. Starting from 10% in 2011, the proportion of school performance pay in the PP is set at 30% in 2012 (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2011d). School evaluation is conducted annually, and consists of common areas and region-specific areas (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2010a). Common areas which are decided by the MOE are as follows: students' performance at the annual national achievement test, school-specific projects, participation rate for after school activities, student health, student drop-out rate, and rate of employment (*ibid.*). Region-specific areas for Seoul are as follows: teachers' participation in teacher education, teachers' and students' participation in student club activities, participation in school open days and school development activities governed by the educational office, and awards. Several issues were raised regarding this scheme by teachers and researchers alike. Performance in education is difficult to measure and, thus, it is difficult to make the pay proportionate to teachers' achievement. (Ban, Park, & Kim, 2012; Seong, 2011).

The more recently adopted scheme, Teacher Development Appraisal (TDA), announces as its aims to diagnose and develop teachers' expertise in teaching and guidance (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2010c). According to the standardization manual for the TDA (*ibid.*), the scheme evaluates the principal,



the vice-principal, teachers and administrative staff. The evaluation of the principal is conducted by the vice-principal, teachers, parents, and students; the evaluation of the other staff is conducted by the above mentioned parties plus the principal. The regional offices develop their own versions based on the manual.

The way the TDA is conducted reflects a strong push for teachers' continuous professional development. The procedure consists of evaluation, feedback to the teachers, and the creation of a plan for the teacher's professional development. Responsibility for providing the necessary support lies with the head teacher and the regional educational office (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2011b). Annually conducted, this scheme intends to provide teachers with opportunities to reflect on their own performances and make plans for professional development that are suitable for their own needs.

TDA holds teachers accountable to teachers (including head teachers), parents and students (ibid.). The teacher evaluation committee consists of six teachers. Out of these, one should be either the head or the deputy head, another either a department head or a 'master teacher', and the remaining four are teachers from the same administrative department and/or the same subject group. All students of a teacher and their parents participate in the satisfaction survey, and the level of participation should meet a previously set standard. The areas of the evaluation for teachers consist of two: academic and life guidance. Academic guidance concerns the quality of their teaching, which is evaluated by three sub-areas, planning of lessons, execution of lessons, and evaluation and feedback. The life guidance concerns teachers' performance in relation to areas other than academic development of students, that is, students' personal and social lives. The evaluation is conducted using a five-point Likert-type scale. Based on the evaluation results, teachers submit their plan for professional development, and some of those who receive outstanding evaluation receive a sabbatical research year. In case the evaluatee does not agree with the results, he or she can ask to see the details of the report. This scheme has been a source of concern for some

teachers because linking it with pay and promotion is also under consideration, although currently it is used only to “encourage” teachers’ professional development (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2009a, p. 5).

In this section I have discussed the three different individual evaluation schemes a teacher is subject to. The amount of administrative work these multiple evaluations may create and the pressure it puts teachers under as well as possible tension which may arise from these evaluation schemes has been discussed. This intensive evaluation creates a distinctive context which affects teachers’ engagement with the TEE scheme and its impact, which will be discussed in Chapter 7 and 8. The following section will discuss features of English language education in the context.

## **2.5 English: Focus of heightened attention**

South Korea is said to suffer from ‘English fever’: a tremendous amount of money is spent on English language education and many parents place English education as the priority in their child rearing (J. K. Park, 2009). This has an effect on government policies and structure, and places extra demands on teachers who teach English. In terms of its effect on policy, this heightened attention makes English the focus of policy making; thus, the sheer amount of policy generated for English education created a need for a separate section for policies on English education (<http://www.mest.go.kr/web/422/ko/board/list.do?bbsId=58>) in its website ([http://www.mest.go.kr/web/1139/site/contents/ko/ko\\_0137.jsp?selectId=1139](http://www.mest.go.kr/web/1139/site/contents/ko/ko_0137.jsp?selectId=1139)). All the other sections cover general issues such as teacher employment, student guidance, and nursery education.

The structure of the MOE also reflects its focus on English education. There is only one department which deals with policies related to a specific subject, that is, English education policy department. There are no departments dedicated to any other subjects in school education. Rather, all other divisions are formed around

general educational issues such as planning, budgeting, human resources, life-long education, supporting parents, and college entrance exams.

Finally, English teachers are put under extra pressure. Primary school teachers are licensed to teach all subjects. However, the government requires those who are in charge of English teaching to take an additional certification. In secondary education, the certification for in-service teachers was first introduced for English teachers, although certification for science teachers was subsequently added and there is tentative discussion of certification schemes for other subject teachers. This special requirement for English shows the huge importance attached to English language teaching. How this specific context affects some teachers' engagement is discussed in section 7.1.2.

## **2.6 The national curriculum**

The content of school education is centrally decided by the MOE through the National Curriculum (NC). The current curriculum is called '2009 Revised Curriculum', and is a revision of the earlier 7<sup>th</sup> National Curriculum which was introduced in 1997. The NC covers nursery education for children aged five up to the senior high school level (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, ca. 2011a), reflecting the current situation that the majority of the population finishes senior high school education. The stated aim of the 2009 Revised Curriculum is to develop "people who realize their potential and pioneer their careers, through which they contribute to the advancement of the nation and the global community" (my translation) (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, ca. 2011b, p. 26).

The curriculum exerts power on pedagogic practices in schools, particularly content-wise. This results from the fact that the materials and teachers that potentially affect the practiced curriculum draw on the NC. First, the publishers and the writers of textbooks closely follow the textbook developers' guidelines based on the NC. Candidate textbooks which do not reflect the guidelines fail the

scrupulous and competitive licensing procedure which the Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation executes on behalf of the MOE. Additionally, teachers in South Korea generally orient their teaching to the textbook. The limited number of research studies on textbook use in South Korea show that teachers cover the textbook content following the order of presentation and use most of the suggested activities and questions, although some supplementary materials are brought into the lessons and some of the content is not covered (P.-G. Kim, 2004; Son & Choi, 2008/9).

To understand the English curriculum as implemented in practice, understanding the actual content of the curriculum is necessary. The English section in the NC covers the following five areas: the overall aims of English language education; the objectives; the content; suggested teaching and learning methodologies; and assessment (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2008b). Each of these sections will be discussed in turn.

The section on the aims discusses English as a global language and as a means of communication among intercultural speakers. Although references are made to the role of English as a global language, the way English is being conceptualised is not in line with what researchers in World Englishes (WEs) and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) are saying about the role of English. Scholars from both fields explore principles and practices in English language teaching in terms of models of English (See Jenkins 2006 for an overview of the two fields). They question the extent to which native norms are appropriate in English language teaching (see section 2.8.1 for further discussion). The two fields suggest different alternatives to native speaker norms. Scholars in WEs espouse multiple norm approaches, that is, acknowledging a diverse models of Englishes that are specific to different locations (e.g., Matsuda 2003), and those in ELF are probing the possibility of capturing norms among ELF interactions and reflecting them in instruction (Cogo & Dewey, 2012) and accepting non-native speaker language as legitimate in its own right (e.g., Seidlhofer, 2011). On the other hand, the NC is still based on the

native norm, and accommodates the debate only to the extent of acknowledging the existence of other Englishes and cultures than those of the UK and the US. Issues around setting the native speaker model as the reference point for school education are discussed in section 2.8.2, its reflection in the TEE scheme in Chapter 6, and teachers' experience with it in Chapter 7.

In the section on objectives, the objectives of English language education in secondary education as a core curriculum are presented as “building up communicative competence” and “developing a basis for understanding other cultures and introducing the national culture to the world” (my translation) (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2011, p. 20). The first aim, building up communicative competence of students has a strong presence in English education in South Korea because the aim featured a series of policies related to English teaching, for almost two decades.

The content section of the national curriculum discusses the content of English to be taught as well as learning objectives. The content refers to the four skills, that is, listening, speaking, reading and writing, and specified topics, functions, grammatical items, and vocabulary. The learning objectives are specified for school year groups for each skill. This section reflects the highly prescriptive nature of the NC. It specifies the linguistic items that are allowed to be used in textbook writing. It also limits the number of new words and sentence length for each group level. For instance, for the year group of Year 3 and 4, all sentences should be of seven words or fewer, and only 240 new words can be added.

This section reflects two different views of language learning: ‘the structural view’ and ‘the interactional view’ to borrow J. C. Richards and Rodgers’ terms (2001, pp. 20, 21). Listing the elements of language system such as vocabulary and grammatical phrases and prescribing that certain items be mastered before others, the NC seems to suggest that language learning consists of “mastering the elements or building blocks of the language and learning the rules by which these elements are combined,” which is one feature of the structural view (ibid., p.55).

At the same time, the NC reflects some aspects of 'the functional view': it specifies "the topics...the learner needs to communicate about" (ibid., p.21) and "aims to (a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and (b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication" (ibid., pp.154, 155). This functional view is also reflected in the assessment section. It presents the construct to be assessed as individual skills, reading, writing, listening and speaking, and combinations of these skills. This is rather detached from the current practice in school exams and the current national college entrance exam which focus mainly on vocabulary, grammar, and receptive skills. This may lead to tension when implementing the curriculum, which will be discussed toward the end of this section.

The NC does not seem to reflect the final view of language learning mentioned in Richards & Rogers (2001), that is interactional view, where the language teaching content is "specified and organized by patterns of exchange and interaction or may be left unspecified, to be shaped by the inclinations of learners as interactors" (ibid. p.21). Although the NC may be mistakenly linked with the Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT) through its frequent use of the term 'tasks,' it does not seem to support either a strong or a weak version of TBLT or Task Based Instruction (TBI). Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011, p. 146) say to count as reflecting a TBI approach, the pedagogic focus should be on "task completion instead of on the language used in the process", but the current textbooks clearly focus on the language items; according to Andon's (Forthcoming, p. XX) categorization, the NC seems to reflect the Presentation, Practice, Production framework.

In the methodology section, there are general guidelines for teaching, including that the lessons should be motivating, should build up self-confidence and respect learner styles. The original curriculum promotes "the communicative approach" (Ministry of Education 1998, cited in E.-J. Kim, 2011, p.226). However, the

curriculums that apply to the period of data collection - that is, the 2007 Revised Curriculum (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2008a) which concerns years 2007 through 2010, and the 2009 Revised Curriculum (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2011) which is in effect from 2011 - do not name any specific teaching approach. The description of the teaching and learning approach of those two curriculums, however, reflects the discourse of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). It aims to develop students' communicative competence and encourages use of English as the medium of instruction. The guidelines describe teachers as facilitators, emphasise students' production of English, promote use of tasks, student-centeredness and sparing use of immediate corrective feedback, which largely reflect the features of CLT commonly discussed (see Mangubhai, Marland, Dashwood, and Son, 2004). These features seem to be the reason for the curricular innovations on English language teaching in the context to be described as related to CLT or TBLT by scholars in and outside the country (e.g., E.-J. Kim, 2011; Littlewood, 2007). This discourse of CLT is also adopted by innovations specific to regional educational offices. The TEE scheme is a part of such innovations in Seoul. The issues around CLT elements in the TEE scheme will be discussed in detail in section 2.8.

This overview of the English section of the NC points to some possible tension in terms of pedagogic practice. As pointed out, the NC reflects two different views of language learning: 'the structural view' in some parts of the prescription on the content of language education, and 'the interactional view' in other parts of the section and in the assessment and methodology sections. This tension inherent in the NC is further complicated by influences from outside the NC. The functional view is favoured in the official discourse about teaching practice through a series of educational policies termed *Seoul Yeongeong Gonggyoyug Ganghwa Bangan* or School Managed Innovation of Learning English (SMILE) project, which is expressed through different routes such as introduction of the TEE certification, an increase of the proportion of speaking and writing assessment in school curriculum, and employing native-speakers of English as teachers for conversation

lessons (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2011c). On the other hand, there are other pulls: a pull toward lessons which reflect the structural view and emphasise test taking skills. The English section of the CSAT by and large consists of patterned reading and listening items, which lead most English teachers to think knowledge of vocabulary and grammar rules, as well as test-taking skills, are what lead to students' better marks (I.-C. Choi, 2008; Educational Broadcasting System, ca. 2011) (See Section 2.3 for details of the CSAT). Thus, the teachers feel pressured to teach grammatical rules and a great amount of vocabulary to help the students obtain a better mark at the CSAT.

However, the MOE is trying to remove the sources of tension through introducing a new assessment which aims to measure English communicative competence, that is, the National English Ability Test (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation, ca. 2011). It is piloted in college admission from 2012, and is planned to replace the English section of the CSAT from 2015 (Educational Broadcasting System, ca. 2011). The MOE expects that wash-back effects from this test will shape the pedagogy and assessment of English at the individual school level, making it more communication-oriented (ibid.). The MOE also plans to replace the current English textbooks which have been used since 2009 after 2013 (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation, n.d.) in order for the textbooks to better support the changed curriculum. It remains to be seen whether these measures will facilitate the changes aimed by the government or prove to be another unsuccessful attempt at introducing contextual changes, a matter which is beyond the scope of this thesis.

## **2.7 Licensing and developing English teachers**

There are two ways to obtain a certificate which enables one to apply for the licensure exam and work as a secondary school teacher in South Korea. The first route is attending a special purpose 4-year education programme at a *Sabeomdaehak* or college of education. The candidates learn both subject content and pedagogical theories and practice. The second route is undertaking a subject-



focused Bachelor's degree and obtaining additional education on pedagogy as a minor or double major, which would take an extra year or two, or pursuing an education-related MA degree, which would take two to three years.

Having obtained a teaching certificate, one is granted the opportunity to take an annual Teacher Recruitment Test which is set by one of the sixteen local educational offices to select teachers to work in state schools. Despite some differences, the contents of the test are similar across different educational offices. The MOE (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2006) specify that the three-phase recruitment procedure for English teachers must include from 2009 a written test on educational theories, an English essay test, an English interview, and a microteaching which is conducted in English. To teach English at a private school, however, a candidate contacts the individual school directly for a vacancy or takes the annual Private Teacher Selection Test conducted by the Private Schools Association. The procedures and contents of the recruitment assessments and the TEE certification overlap to a large degree, which makes some teachers – particularly those who work at the state schools – feel resistant to the TEE scheme, because they feel they do not need to be evaluated twice in the same areas, an issue which will be discussed in Chapter 7.

There are two types of teacher education for in-service teachers governed by the MOE: in-service training and other opportunities for professional development. In-service teacher training is provided free-of-charge to teachers by the regional training institutes which are financed by the government. In-service training for English teachers that is provided by regional training institutes covers a wide range of topics and areas, but can be divided into two strands. One strand aims to improve teachers' instructional and assessment skills: it may either relate to a particular subject such as writing essays in English and ways to evaluate English speaking proficiency or to more general content such as leading motivating lessons and leading group discussions. The other strand has aims outside pedagogy, such as understanding rules and particulars of school administration,

diffusion of a particular innovative initiative, and training for career changes (e.g., Seoul Education Training Institute 2011a).

The training is conducted both off- and on-line or in a mode which combines both. The off-line training takes place either at the regional training institutes or at individual schools. The training offered at the training institutes is mostly planned and designed by the staff at the institutes, but can also be designed and run by teachers at each school, with financial support from the training institute. Once his or her proposal for a teacher training programme is accepted, the teacher or school who wrote the proposal runs the programme (Seoul Education Training Institute, 2011b). Part of the TEE certification is delivered through online training (discussed in 5.2.4), and Seoul Education Training Institute has recently started to provide sessions on the practice promoted through the TEE scheme.

Other than in-service training, teachers have further opportunities for professional development supported by the educational offices. A teacher may join one of the four teacher unions, each of which has a different conceptualisation of the teaching profession (e.g., professional vs. labourer) and runs research groups with different foci. There are also many independent associations of various sizes which aim for development of English teachers either academically or professionally such as *Hanguk Jungdeung Yeongeo Gyoyuk Yeonguhoe* [Korea Secondary Teachers Association]. The research and professional activities of these associations are subsidized by the regional educational offices or the MOE. A teacher may also attend private courses related to his/her subject such as English conversation, the cost of which is reimbursed by the educational offices. Finally, the MOE and several government-funded educational research institutes and teaching resource centres annually call for proposals and fund teacher-initiated research or materials development projects, and a group of teachers can be subsidized for their chosen project once their proposals are accepted by these organizations. All the professional activities governed by the MOE are recognised by the TEE scheme and obtaining credits for

professional development activities is a prerequisite for the certification. How the credit is calculated in the scheme will be discussed in 6.2.3.

There is still another method that the MOE employs to change and develop teachers, that is, teacher evaluation, as discussed in section 2.4. The following section discusses the TEE scheme which applies only to English language teachers.

## **2.8 The TEE scheme**

In addition to the three evaluation schemes discussed in section 2.4, English language teachers are required to undertake the TEE certification, which was first designed and implemented in Seoul in 2009, and was then subsequently adopted by the MOE and promoted at the national level in 2010. The specifics of the scheme are left to be decided by the regional educational offices. The details and historical background of the scheme as used in Seoul will be discussed in detail in Chapter 6. However, this section will discuss the three elements of practice covered in this scheme, that is, the goal of developing students' communicative competence, teaching English in communicative ways and using English as the medium of instruction.

### **2.8.1 Communicative competence and language teaching approaches**

The MOE has long promoted the development of students' communicative competence in English education, and the TEE scheme is a part of this initiative. CLT forms the basis of innovations related to English education, although nowhere is it clearly promoted. Therefore, this section will start with a brief discussion of the notion of communicative competence. It will also discuss CLT which grew out of this notion of communicative competence and informs English education in South Korea as well as the TEE scheme. This will be followed by discussion of the recent problematisation of CLT and counter arguments, in order to locate the TEE scheme in a broader context of the related debates.

The term communicative competence was first coined by Dell Hymes (1972/2001) and was publicly discussed in 1966 (Cazden, 2011). Hymes (1972/2001) emphasises an individual's capacity for language use as community- and context-bound, pointing out the limitation of Chomsky's focus on the idealised linguistic competence of individuals. Building on Hymes' emphasis on capturing usage of language, Canale and Swain (1980) proposed that communicative competence consists of three different competences, 1) grammatical competence – knowledge of lexis, morphology, phonology and grammar, 2) sociolinguistic competence – knowledge of appropriacy and discourse, and 3) strategic competence – abilities to compensate for communicative breakdown. Canale (1983) later divided sociolinguistic competence into sociolinguistic competence and discourse competence, and explained the latter as consisting of “cohesion in form and coherence in meaning” (p.9). Other terms were suggested to incorporate needs created by intercultural communication such as symbolic competence (Kramsch, 2006) and intercultural communicative competence (Alptekin, 2002). While acknowledging their usefulness, the discussion in this thesis will confine itself to communicative competence, because this is what the South Korean government is promoting.

What the South Korean government means by communicative competence is not clearly stated in the official documents which mention this concept (e.g., Ministry of Human Resources, 2007; K. H. Yi, Yi, Sohn, & Yi, 2000), as is often the case in many other contexts where developing students' communicative competence is promoted by the government (Ali, Hamid, & Moni, 2011). What it means can only be inferred from the description of subject content as well as of pedagogic practice promoted in the national curriculum. It seems the curriculum covers the first three areas of communicative competence as identified by Canale (1983). It deals with grammatical competence by emphasising learning vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation; limited sociolinguistic competence through providing various functional expressions and encouraging their use in communicative activities and tasks; discourse competence through providing

adjacency pairs, encouraging information exchange, and writing logically.

However, the curriculum does not include any expressions which can be linked to strategic competence, although there is a possibility that teachers may personally teach students some strategies to mend communicative breakdown.

Hymes's (1972/2001) emphasis on use of language and Canale and Swain's (1980) identification of the components of communicative competence needed in communication led to a new direction for language teaching - from mastery of language structure to mastery of language use (see Brumfit & Johnson, 1979 for details of its adoption in language teaching research). This development in conjunction with developments in other fields of research such as educational science gave birth to a new approach to language teaching, which was later termed Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (Van den Branden, Bygate, & Norris, 2009). CLT has been hugely influential in the sense that most English language teaching practitioners have heard of it, if they have not tried to apply it. According to the often quoted Richards and Rodgers (2001), there is common understanding that CLT has the following characteristics (p. 172):

- Learners learn language through using it to communicate.
- Authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of classroom activities.
- Fluency is an important dimension of communication.
- Communication involves the integration of different language skills.
- Learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error.

It seems the discourse evident in the documents that prescribe approaches to English language teaching in South Korea reflect this initial discussion of the approach, a partial reflection at that. For instance, the discourse of the English language teaching innovations only discusses providing students with opportunities to speak in a classroom that is led in English. It does not address

how it aims to develop different aspects of communicative competence as identified by researchers such as Canale (1983).

However, the approach is not as simple as it is presented in those government documents, such as those related to the TEE scheme. While it is observed that in so many different contexts the approach is promoted particularly at a policy level, the approach has invited much criticism from various scholars. They include the following interrelated arguments:

- 1) The exact nature of CLT is not clear, which puts the onus of understanding and practising it on teachers (Spada, 2007);
- 2) Teaching methods including CLT are oppressive to teachers, prescribing a set of procedures which may be incompatible with the context, thus disempowering them (e.g., Bax, 2003; Canagarajah, 1999; Kumaravadivelu, 1994);
- 3) Approaches and methods ignore the needs of the learners and differences across contexts (e.g., Bax, 2003; Kumaravadivelu, 1994);
- 4) Teaching approaches and methods reproduce the power relationship between dominant and minor social groups such as “developing” and “developed” countries, and teachers and scholars (Canagarajah, 1999; Pennycook, 1989).

Their criticism reflects the current practices in many contexts. For instance, as discussed in section 2.6, the national curriculum promotes communicative teaching employing descriptions of CLT approaches; however, exact details on how to teach communicatively is not specified. Leaving out detailed understanding of how to teach in a communicative way often results in misunderstanding of the approach. For example, referring back to my experience of teaching English in this context, many English teachers including myself thought that teaching communicatively excludes explicit instruction of grammar and requires exclusive use of English as the medium of instruction. These misconceptions of communicative teaching were noted by some researchers. For

instance, Thompson's (1996) discussion of some misconceptions about CLT includes exclusion of grammar teaching as well as the charge that the approach is designed for native<sup>4</sup> speaking English teachers (NEST)<sup>5</sup> of the L2 which implies exclusive use of the L2 as the medium of instruction. On the other hand, discussion of those communicative approaches show these are misconceptions. Even some practitioners of Task-based Language Teaching, which considers that more mainstream and weak interpretations of CLT are not communicative enough, accept the role of explicit grammar teaching. To illustrate, Skehan's (2009) framework accepts "explicit" pre-teaching of target language (p.99). This misunderstanding in combination with misunderstanding of the agenda of some policies on English teaching as requiring English as the sole medium of instruction, as will be discussed in the next section, resulted in feelings of inadequacy of senior teachers. The experience of senior teachers in relation to the TEE scheme will be discussed in section 7.1.2.

The criticism also reflects the fact that the approach is blindly prescribed by authorities in many contexts, perhaps ignoring the reality of the local schools. This led some scholars to call for total abandonment of the concept of approaches and methods (Bax, 2003; Kumaravadivelu, 1994). However, as Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) rightly point out, perhaps "it is not methods, but how they are used that is at issue" (p. xiv). Different researchers suggested ways they can be used to enhance language teaching. For instance, Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (ibid.) suggest various methods may be used to provide shared language in the field to describe and discuss what practitioners do in the classroom, rather than as

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<sup>4</sup> Most research on nativeness of speakers of a language agree that the division between native and non-native speakers is unclear, and based on this, some challenge the use of this term (e.g., Kirkpatrick, 2007, p.10). I use the concept, however, because it is commonly used and understood in the South Korean context.

<sup>5</sup> Issues around NEST and non-NEST teachers are to be discussed in section 3.1.6.

prescription to be closely followed. Then they may become springboards for continuous professional development and for self-reflection. Others suggest they be adapted to suit local needs (G. Ellis, 1996; Holliday, 1994). Still others suggest that they can form the knowledge base of pre-service teacher education and provide novice teachers with something to start their teaching with rather than asking them to create their own pedagogic practice from scratch (e.g., Andon and Leung, Forthcoming). South Korean teachers' experience with and perceptions regarding the communicative approach, as promoted by the TEE scheme, will be discussed in Chapter 7 and 8.

In contrast to those who questioned the value of approaches and methods themselves, there was also a movement which called for stronger versions of CLT. Those who promoted this move noted that CLT no longer follows its own premises while it tries to stretch itself to incorporate all the related debates in academia and practices claiming to follow the approach. This move was later termed Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), and according to some scholars (Van den Branden et al., 2009), it advocates the reinstitution of "communication at the heart of teaching procedures" to be faithful to the need recognised by the originators of CLT (p.5). This approach will be discussed below because the approach is often associated with the ELT innovations in the context as described in section 6.2, and also because several criteria of the evaluation schedule of the TEE scheme refer to tasks.

TBLT is often described as a strong version of CLT (East, 2012). To most researchers, TBLT precludes pre-teaching linguistic items; it is an approach which advocates "using [the language] to learn it" rather than "learning to use [the language]," on the premise that language use develops the language system (Howatt, 1984, p. 279). Thus, the language itself loses the central position in the learning process. However, TBLT also has strong and weak versions (Skehan, 1996), and these two versions present differently what constitutes TBLT and what can happen in a classroom which adopts TBLT. There is commonality across different



versions of this approach, however, which is the centrality of task completion instead of the language used in the process (Harmer, 2007, p. 71; Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011, p. 146). In Chapter 7, whether and how TBLT and CLT figure in the assessed lessons of the TEE scheme in order to reflect its goal of developing students' communicative competence will be discussed, drawing on the accounts of the candidates as well as analysis of the observed assessed lessons and assessment results.

### **2.8.2 Using the target language as the medium of instruction**

In the documents regarding government-led initiatives which aim to promote communicative competence, communicative ways of teaching and using English as the medium of instruction in English lessons are often mentioned together (e.g., Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2005a, p.4). Some of these documents clarify that the government does not promote exclusive use of English and promotes maximal use of it, both at the national level (e.g., Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2005b, p. 9; 2006, p.10), and at a regional level (e.g., Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2008a). To illustrate, the policy document of the SMILE project, of which the TEE scheme is a part, clarifies that teaching English in English (TEE) means “using English as the medium in most cases except for cases like explanation of difficult grammatical items” and “using English at least 80% on average during lessons” (ibid, p.13).

This flexible approach regarding medium of instruction is supported by different studies. Journal articles which overview these (e.g., Auerbach, 1993; V. Cook, 2001; and Hall & Cook, 2012) argue for this flexible approach for the following common reasons. First, use of the L1 can facilitate learning of the L2 in cognitive ways (the detail arguments will be discussed below); second, it lowers the affective barriers, particularly of learners with low L2 proficiency; third, it empowers learners because language is related to people's identities. Finally, it may liberate teachers whose first language is not the target language and who may feel insecure about their authority in the classroom (Rajagopalan, 2005): teachers need not feel guilty

unnecessarily when they use L1 on perfectly justifiable pedagogical grounds (Copland & Neokleous, 2011) or feel that they are inadequate because they cannot conduct lessons in English only (H. Shin, 2007). V. Cook (2001) adds two other reasons: it may sometimes raise the efficiency of the lessons, and it has real life relevance because people draw on all linguistics resources they possess in interactions.

On cognitive facilitation through allowance for L1 in L2 classrooms, research on students' use of L1 shows that it helps knowledge co-construction among students (Anton & Dicamilla, 1999; Butzkamm, 2007; G. Cook, 2010; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003). Anton and Dicamilla (1999), for instance, investigated the interaction among ten students over three different tasks in a short-term modern foreign language course and found that L1 (English) is used by students to establish what they need to do with the given L2 (Spanish) language tasks, to successfully complete the tasks and self-regulate their own learning through externalising their thoughts when tasks are complex. If, as the authors argue on the basis of relevant literature, the process of this negotiation of meaning leads to language learning, and verbalising their self-regulation of learning helps students' thinking process, then allowing L1 is important for L2 learning. Instructors' judicious use of L1 also aids students' understanding of the lessons (G. Hall & Cook, 2012; Scheweers, 1999; Tang, 2002).

There are also studies, however, which report students' reservation against their own use of L1 in L2 lessons (Scheweers, 1999; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Tang, 2002). Storch and Wigglesworth (2003) investigated the reasons for this reservation and found the following reasons: their concern about the extra time required for translating the outcome which should be shared in English after all; loss of opportunities to improve their English; and expression of deference toward the instructor who does not share their language. Participant teachers' practices in terms of allowing L1 use during the assessment will be briefly discussed in

Chapter 7 in analysing the assessed lessons which are a part of the TEE certification procedure.

While the official stance of the government as expressed in these policy documents is up-to-date with recent research findings, there are problems of ineffective communication and misrepresentation of this stance in practice. For instance, some regional level policy documents neglect to include the information on this flexibility and thus they read as if they advocate exclusive use of English in teaching English (e.g., Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2010c). For the case of the TEE scheme, the fact that candidates are required to conduct assessed lessons exclusively in English also contributes to this misunderstanding. Second, most of the media coverage of related policies presents exclusive use of English as the norm (e.g., Chosunilbo, 2009; S. Y. Shin, 2009). As a result, many teachers think that the government promotes exclusive use of English, as will be discussed in Chapter 7.

Allowance of such misunderstanding is problematic. First, it reduces the impact of innovations. To illustrate, Yi et al. (2011) note teachers' confusion about the promoted practice in terms of medium of instruction and identify it as the source of their anxiety about, and negative attitude toward, the TEE scheme. Several studies on ELT innovations (e.g., Karavas-Doukas, 1998; Park & Sung, 2013) in turn show that unfavourable attitude towards the innovation limits its implementation and impact.

Second, it creates unnecessary anxiety and loss of confidence for those teachers who are not confident to use English as the sole medium of instruction. For many teachers who are accustomed to teaching English using mostly Korean as the medium, teaching English in English exclusively is a drastic change. When this misunderstanding of the policy regarding medium is combined with misunderstanding of the CLT approach as discussed in the previous section, it often results in teachers' feelings of inadequacy as teachers, particularly for senior

teachers, as will be discussed in section 7.1.2, and leads to some of the unexpected impact as will be discussed in section 8.3.

A separate issue that needs discussion in relation to the medium of instruction is the model of English promoted by the TEE scheme. One of the goals of the TEE scheme is to find teachers to replace the NESTs who are currently in charge of conversation lessons, and perhaps that is why the scheme uses native speaker proficiency as the standard against which teachers' English is assessed (see 6.2.5 for discussion of the model as reflected in the evaluation schedule). If the TEE scheme and other related policies aim to promote communicative competence as proposed by Hymes (1972/2001), however, this goal may need re-examination. Hymes's (1972/2001) view is that rules shared by a specific community are changeable by community members' use of the language (Cazden, 2011; Dewey & Leung, 2010). Leung, (2005) drawing attention to this original conceptualisation, criticises the limitation of the current pedagogic practice which adhere to the native speaker model of English, ignoring the fact that in modern days most interactions in English occur between L2 users of English. His argument may have relevance to the standards of English required by the TEE scheme on teachers who use English as a foreign language and for whom achieving this standard is challenging at the least.

Researchers of World Englishes (WEs) and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) also problematise setting certain native speaker norms, for instance, British or American English, as the standard for English teaching. It is because, first, for many non-NEST teachers it is not possible to obtain such norms. For instance, Kachru (1991) points out that one suggested way for non-NEST teachers to achieve this norm, that is, keeping constant contact with the norm users, is not practically viable. Even when such constant contact is possible, it is another matter for this contact to result in obtaining such norms. Second, for many language learners English use does not necessarily involve native speakers of those varieties of English but more likely to involve users of other varieties of

English. The norm reflected in the evaluation schedule for assessing lessons for the TEE scheme will be discussed in Chapter 6.

## **2.9 Chapter summary**

In this chapter, the educational context in South Korea has been described and its possible influence on the impact and perceptions of the TEE scheme were explored. The educational context of South Korea is featured with policy changes, enthusiasm for education, and increased accountability of teachers. The political nature of agenda setting and the enthusiasm in South Korea for higher education lead to constant changes in educational policies. Teachers' performance is highly scrutinised through three different annual schemes which involve multiple assessor groups. These changes may lead to feelings of insecurity among teachers because they lead to financial insecurity and the introduction of new values, and this insecure state may in turn affect teachers' engagement with the TEE scheme.

It was also discussed in this chapter that English education is one of the central foci of educational policies in the South Korean context. The government aims to change the content of English education from teaching about the language to learning how to use the language. All different elements of the educational system, including the national curriculum, the procedure for licensing teachers and professional development opportunities, prepare teachers for this new goal of English education. The TEE scheme is added to expedite the change. However, these different elements do not always align themselves to provide clear guidance to teachers. Different views of language teaching and learning and of the level of English proficiency expected of teachers coexist among these different elements of the educational system. To make matters worse, the government documents demand changes but do not specify how and, thus, they leave room for misunderstanding.

The interaction between the general educational context and features of English education create a complex background for the TEE scheme to enter. This

complex background may affect teachers' perceptions and engagement with the TEE scheme in an equally complex way. Before investigating what happens around the TEE scheme and why, the next two chapters will discuss previous literature on the areas which I drew on in order to understand the procedure and impact of the TEE scheme, and to decide appropriate research methods for this investigation. Additionally, these two chapters will help locate my research within the related research context.

## **Chapter 3 Language Teaching Expertise and its Development**

### **3.0 Introduction**

The Teaching English in English (TEE) scheme has the ultimate aim of improving teachers' expertise to help develop students' communicative competence as discussed in Chapter 2. This aim invites a question on the nature and components of teaching expertise of English language teachers in this context. In the South Korean context, most English teachers also perform the role of a homeroom teacher who takes pastoral care of students. These two roles are not separable and are performed at the same time. Therefore, general teaching expertise is also considered. The aim of the TEE scheme to change and develop teachers also requires investigation into the nature and process of teacher development. All these will be discussed in this chapter.

The chapter starts with discussion of different concepts related to teaching expertise (3.1.1), which is followed by discussion on the nature of teaching expertise (3.1.2) and language teaching expertise in particular (3.1.3). It then briefly discusses the components of teaching expertise (3.1.4) and moves on to discuss what teachers need to know in general (3.1.5) and specific to English language teaching (3.1.6; 3.1.7). Finally, section 3.2 discusses how teachers' expertise can be further developed. This chapter, thus, will form the foundation on which I build my understanding of the scheme and my evaluation of it. The next chapter will discuss literature which directly informs my research, reflecting the features of the scheme as a curricular innovation in the form of a certification.

### 3.1 Teaching expertise

#### 3.1.1 The terminology

This section on teaching expertise starts with exploring related terminology, because all terms have their history and connotations. Such consideration will help identify the term which best represents the constructs this research hopes the TEE scheme will appropriately evaluate. It will also help in using different terms properly and discussing the topic with clarity of meaning. The terms that have been used to describe teachers' abilities include teacher/teaching *expertise* (Johnson, 2005; Tsui, 2009b), *effectiveness* (Campbell, Kyriakides, Muijs, & Robinson, 2004; McBer, 2000), *efficacy* (Jamison, 2004), *competence* (Shulman, 1986; M. J. Wallace, 1991), *quality* (Knight, 1993), and *excellence* (Brundrett & Silcock, 2002). There are also closely related terms such as *professionalism* (Evans, 2008) and *professionalism* (Day & Smethem, 2009; Malm, 2009). These terms are seen quite frequently in titles of recent studies, as concepts from the business world, including competitiveness and economy, are becoming increasingly popular in education internationally (Leung, 2009; Wong, 2008). In addition to this multiplicity of terms, the conceptualization and operationalisation can vary for the same term.

This thesis is concerned with *teaching expertise*. Teaching expertise is conceived of as the following: “a process that mediates superior performance” (Tsui, 2009b, p. 195) and “the effective creation and use of substructures to achieve superordinate goals” (D. Woods, 1996, p. 294), that is, the appropriation of available or possible resources to accomplish set goals. The teachers in their case studies do not simply follow the goals set by the authorities, but rather set their own goals based on their own teaching principles and analysis of their practices. To consider its meaning against this setting, the term expertise is open to the nature of the goals and the originator of the goals; includes the judgment or decisions of teachers; considers what is beyond observable performances. More importantly, this term does not imply comparison or competition among teachers.



Therefore, it does not need to apply only to those few who are publicly acclaimed as the expert. Rather, it can apply to any teachers who do their utmost for the well-being of their learners and who continuously develop themselves and meet the changing demands from the teaching context (Moore, 2004). Therefore, for its versatility and scope for reflecting the voice of “ordinary” teachers (Elbaz, 1991), *expertise* seems to represent the central interest of this thesis and what I consider should be measured by the TEE scheme, considering its stated aim to promote teachers’ expertise (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2010c, p. 1).

On the other hand, other concepts describing teachers’ abilities also concern this thesis. For instance, the research team which developed the TEE scheme uses the term competence in describing the construct they aimed to measure (Jin et al., 2009). The term is often used in relation to teacher evaluation (e.g., Beck, 2009; Huntly, 2011; Shulman, 1986) and teacher education (e.g., Wallace, 1991; Whitty & Willmott, 1991). According to Whitty and Willmott (1991), the term is used in two senses (p.310):

- 1) An ability to perform a task satisfactorily, the task being clearly defined and the criteria of success being set out alongside this;
- 2) Intellectual, cognitive and attitudinal dimensions, as well as performance; in this model, neither competences nor the criteria of achievement are so readily susceptible to sharp and discrete identification.

The first meaning overlaps with the term competency, and Whitty and Willmott’s (1991) observation of the different uses of the term reflects the fact that the terms competence and competency are often used interchangeably (e.g., Beck, 2009; Brundrett & Silcock, 2002). In the TEE scheme, the term seems to be used in the first sense, considering the fact that the research team presented it being composed of three different elements and has described the successful performances at different levels (Jin et al., 2009, pp. 45-47). Identifying relevant competences to be measured in an evaluation is a necessary step; however, evaluation based on this concept should be undertaken with caution. This is

because as Wilson rightly underscores, “ascertaining that individuals have certain qualities does not guarantee their appropriate use” (Wilson, 2009, p. 20). It should be noted that what is tapped into is only a part of what is needed for teaching.

The last concept which has relevance to this research is effectiveness. This concept is not mentioned in any official documents relevant to this research; however, it may represent what students and parents expect from teachers, or what many teachers think is expected of them by those stakeholders.

Effectiveness has been variously conceptualized, including: “the ability of a classroom teacher to produce higher than predicted gains on standardized achievement tests and/or have the ability to have his/her students perform at high levels” (Jamison, 2004, p. vii); and the ability to achieve educational goals set by a school through performing different instructional roles (Campbell et al., 2004). These definitions show that the term effectiveness is related to a teacher’s performance in relation to the goals that are given by an authority other than the teacher, and is also related to students’ performances in tests. The origins of the concept effectiveness or efficiency, according to Wong (2008), are traced back to “business philosophy and practice”, of which the primary goal is cost-efficiency (ibid., p. 270) rather than the quality of learning in the learning/teaching experience. As discussed in Chapter 2, South Korean teachers are expected to help students obtain high marks in the national college entrance exams and achieve a good Grade Point Average. Therefore, South Korean teachers are expected to exhibit efficiency as well as expertise, which theme will be picked up in Chapter 8.

All these terms will be useful for discussing what is actually being measured in the TEE scheme and for evaluating the scheme. It will be also useful for identifying sources of tension around the scheme. For instance, many researchers in the UK context identified the mismatch between professionalism which used to be promoted in the context and its new conceptualisation as shaped by innovations in the context as sources of tension (e.g. Beck, 2009; Day and Smethem, 2009; Maguire, 2002). The former seems to be similar to expertise and the latter to

effectiveness. These terms will prove useful in the final chapter where I discuss the implications of my findings.

### 3.1.2 Teaching expertise

The quest to understand the essence of teaching expertise is not new. Lowyck (1990) summarizes the history of such a quest into three different paradigms using the term teacher effectiveness. The first paradigm was a *teacher characteristics* paradigm mostly conducted in the 1950s and early 1960s, which was informed by test psychology and which tried to find the traits that would predict the effectiveness of a teacher. Lowyck (1990) attributes the failure of this paradigm to the looseness of the conceptualization of the traits (e.g., student-centeredness or friendliness). He also blames a lack of rigour in the research methods because such research usually operationalised teacher expertise as answers to self-report surveys. This paradigm seems to have made its own contribution to teacher expertise research: it shows that teachers' personalities are not the right place to look in order to understand teacher expertise, and that survey results alone may not adequately capture the full complexity of teacher expertise.

The teacher characteristics paradigm was followed by the process-product paradigm, which was informed by behaviouristic psychology and sought to identify successful pedagogic practice up until the mid-1970s (e.g. Flanders, 1970; Rosenshine and Furst, 1973, both cited in Lowyck, 1990; Rowe 1974 cited in Freeman, 2002). This paradigm was partially successful in that it identified some teaching behaviours or skills that led to effective teaching. However, its applicability was limited because the paradigm ignored important factors that influence educational outcomes, such as subject content, learners, different groupings, educational context, and the teacher, treating each of them as mere factors to be controlled (Freeman, 2002).

A subsequent paradigm appeared around the mid-1970s. According to Lowyck (1990), it has dual strands: a refined *process-product* strand and a *cognitive* strand, though researchers of teacher cognition (Borg, 2003, 2006; Freeman, 2002; Freeman & Johnson, 1998) categorize the current paradigm simply as a *cognitive* paradigm. To begin with, refined process-product research looks for ways to overcome the shortcomings of process-product research while still seeking to identify effective teaching practice. Instead of looking at specific methods or behaviours through a single small-scale study, however, this strand looks for patterns of teaching in areas such as planning, instruction and evaluation that result in better learning outcomes mainly through research synthesis (e.g., Norris & Ortega, 2006; Slavin, 2010). While such research may inform teacher evaluation of the instructional patterns that have a high success rate, it is still not sensitive to capturing the expertise of individual teachers which involves knowing where, with whom, and when the instructional pattern will work.

The second strand involves cognition research that is informed by cognitive psychology, trying to find the role of teacher cognition in teaching practice and, ultimately, in teaching expertise. It is not interested in a prescription for effective teaching that works everywhere but, rather, a pure description of teachers' thoughts within a specific context; it is more interested in trying to capture the knowledge, beliefs, and decision making which inform their teaching. This strand of research provides insights into many matters which were enigmatic to outsiders beforehand, such as why research-based prescriptions for instruction failed to work outside of the research context, and why teacher education does not seem to help teacher development. It shows that teachers are not mindless sponges who absorb and transmit to learners what is presented to them, but that they also have their own beliefs and knowledge through which they filter any attempt to influence pedagogy, as well as being capable of considering various factors when they make instructional decisions (Borg, 2006). Thus, this cognitive strand may have more relevance in informing teacher evaluation which aims to capture expertise in a particular context, a point which is further discussed in

Section 4.3.5. It also suggests that an innovation which aims to change pedagogic practice needs to adopt a cognitive approach to teaching expertise, and to engage with persuasion processes. Chapter 8 illustrates how the TEE scheme fails to do so and resulted in limiting its impact.

In the next section, what can be inferred about teaching expertise from research on language teacher education will be discussed. This separate discussion is meaningful considering the distinctiveness of language as a subject, that is, the fact that it is skill-oriented and uses the *object* of learning, language itself, at least partially as the medium of learning (Chang & Choi, 2007; Freeman, Orzulak, & Morrissey, 2009). In addition, the English language as a subject of study is perceived as unique from other subjects in terms of the content of the teaching, the teaching approach and even the personality of the teachers (Lee, 2010). This discussion has a particular relevance for this research which investigates a language teacher evaluation.

### **3.1.3 Language teaching expertise**

There seems to be little literature which explicitly discusses language teaching expertise. However, the literature on language teacher education should help in understanding such expertise because language teacher education theories reflect views of teaching expertise. Wallace (1991) and Roberts (1998) provide a good review of the past and current models for language teacher education. Wallace (1991), in his textbook on foreign language teacher training, identifies three different views of teacher learning: the craft model, the applied science model, and the reflective model. Roberts (1998) divides the models of teacher education into four: model-based learning, humanistic theory, constructivism, and social constructivism. Their models have overlaps and differences. The overlaps seem to represent what is happening in many teacher education programmes. That is, Wallace's (1991) craft model and Roberts' (1998) model-based learning depict teacher learning as learning the expert's techniques and skills through imitation and feedback, which forms a part of some practice-based initial teacher education.

Wallace's (1991) reflective model and Roberts' (1998) constructivism conceptualise teacher learning as the personalizing of presented information filtered through their own conceptions about teaching through reflection, which seems to be reflected in many current in-service teacher education programmes. Wallace's (1991) applied science model explains another considerable component of many pre- and in-service teacher education programmes, presentation of past and current discussion about teaching or language teaching for the teachers to inform their teaching. The training provided for the advanced level candidates of the TEE scheme reflect all these models, with its emphasis on the craft model. Teachers' perceptions of this orientation of the programme will be discussed in Chapter 7.

Language teaching expertise which could be inferred from these models discussed above is a quality of individual teachers which develops through their formal or informal learning. While these discussed models have made considerable contributions to understanding teaching expertise, they all ignore a very important aspect: the fact that teaching is socially constructed. The social nature of expertise is well documented by Wenger (1999), although his study does not concern teaching. He illustrates, through a case study of claims processors in an insurance company, how the practice of a professional is shaped historically and socially by the community. He points out that the expert knows both what is said and left unsaid in the community through an "embodied, delicate, active, social, negotiated, complex process of participation" (Wenger, 1999, p. 49). He also links professional practice with identity<sup>6</sup>, since being a member of a community and having the identity of the profession implies adopting the practice that is valued by the community. Thus, expertise in his view is, to a large degree, decided by the expectations and shared meanings of the members of the professional community. For this reason, a good teacher evaluation scheme may be the one which reflects

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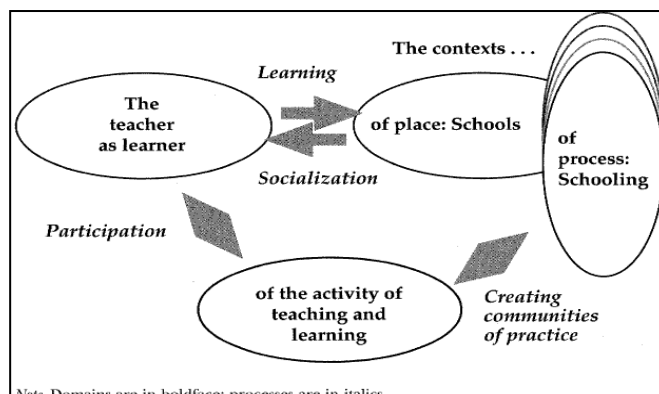
<sup>6</sup> My own use of this term will be discussed in section 3.2.1.

the expectations of the community of practice, both spelt-out and assumed, the observable and non-observable. However, it is often the case that the assumed but non-observable part of expertise is omitted in many teacher evaluation schemes because of the difficulty of reflecting it in evaluation. There is also a possibility that there is tension between the expertise models of different communities and individuals. Related issues to be considered will be discussed in Section 4.3.5, and also how this issue plays a role for deciding the impact of the TEE scheme will be discussed in Chapter 8.

Roberts' (1998) final model of language teacher education, and Freeman and Johnson's (1998) study discuss this social nature of expertise development. Roberts (1998), drawing on a social constructivist approach to human learning, recommends teacher learning to be viewed as "a process of socialization" (*ibid.*, p. 36) and concludes that it is the best approach for teacher learning, although he acknowledges the role of the other approaches. That way, he asserts, both individual and social aspects of teacher learning are appreciated. In this modified view, teacher expertise seems to consist of on-going professional development through reflection on experience and through socialization. Freeman and Johnson's (1998) illustration of the process of teacher development also seems to be that of the social constructivist model. Figure 1, titled "framework for the knowledge-base of language teacher education," (p. 406) shows how the teacher-learner, the context, and the pedagogical process jointly shape a teacher's professional development through interfacing processes of socialization. Thus, ELT expertise, as pictured by Freeman and Johnson (*ibid.*), is collectively defined by the school, the learners and the teacher, and is fluid and developed through a prolonged interaction among the parties. This view explains very well the fact that most teachers experience an adjustment period with new cohorts of students or when they move to another school. Therefore, an innovation which aims to change pedagogic practice may need to consider this socialization aspect and therefore, allow for an adjustment period for all concerned, teachers, learners

and the school, before its aim is achieved, and therefore, any discussion of impact should also calculate the time lag. This issue will be picked up in Chapter 8.

Figure 1 Framework for the knowledge-base of language teacher education



While these social constructivist models do a good job of capturing the fluidity and social aspects of teaching expertise, they do not seem to take into account the fact that a teacher's conceptualization of expertise may legitimately differ from the conceptualization presented by the large or small societies to which they belong, such as the school, the teachers' association or educational district. Leung (2009), however, draws our attention to possible tensions among different conceptualisations of expertise. He proposes that teachers' stance toward expertise, which may differ from those endorsed by the professional community, should be respected as this can be the result of a principled decision after a deliberate evaluation of the differences. His model appreciates both the related social aspects and individual agencies regarding the nature of expertise. This implies that teacher evaluation should allow for room to legitimize aspects of expertise which do not match the prescription on what and how to teach, a point which will be further discussed in Section 4.3.5, and Chapter 8. This model seems to be really important in contexts including South Korea where there are innovations which present new concepts of language teaching expertise and which may or may not align with teachers' current concepts thereof.



To summarize, there have been different views of ELT expertise and the focus of expertise research has moved from teacher traits and behaviours through teacher knowledge to the community to which the teacher belongs. The social constructivist perspective of teacher education appreciates that ELT expertise is jointly defined by the teacher and the school community and, thus, is context-specific. Leung's (2009) model appreciates the agency of the teachers while acknowledging the influences of the community of practice. Evaluation criteria that try to capture the fluidity of and diversity in ELT expertise may inevitably involve a high degree of inference from the evaluators. Suggestions for such high-inferential evaluation are found in Section 4.3.6.

### **3.1.4 Components of teaching expertise**

Discussing the components of teaching expertise is important for this thesis, because when the TEE scheme evaluates teachers, it divides the elements of the expertise needed for developing students' communicative competence and measures those areas separately; thus developing my own framework will provide a reference point for analysing the framework used by the TEE scheme. In this section, then, the components of teaching expertise will be briefly discussed. This discussion, however, does not espouse discreteness of these components. In fact, expertise is more than the sum of its components as discussed in section 3.1.1, and these components are interconnected and are employed in practice in an integrative way, as will be discussed in the following sections.

In identifying the components of expertise, Aristotle's (1976 cited by Flyvbjerg, 2001) discussion of intellectual virtues seems promising. Aristotle (*ibid*) divides intellectual virtues into three: *epistêmê*, *technê* and *phronesis*. *Epistêmê* is scientific, theoretical knowledge; *technê* is concrete and context-dependent skills and practice; and *phronesis* is ethical judgment or practical wisdom, which enables appropriate use of the former two, ensuring the well-being of the learners in the educational context. While his theory is centuries old, many educational theorists have used it to explain the professional knowledge of

teachers, which shows the utility of this model. For instance, in his article on professional knowledge of teaching, Winch (2004) discusses the abilities which teachers as professionals need to possess. He discusses all three of the concepts discussed by Aristotle, although he emphasizes the importance of the first two. That is, his view is that professional expertise consists of knowledge, skills and practice, and ethical judgment.

Of these three areas, recently there has been considerable advance in research of teacher knowledge, which reflects the subject-specificity of the language teaching profession. Interestingly, this field of research has in fact subsumed the other components of expertise, i.e. skills and practice and ethical judgment, in its discussion. This phenomenon seems to be partly due to the interconnectedness of the components of expertise and partly due to the expansion of the concept of knowledge. Therefore, the rest of this section will discuss the development in the field. First I will discuss debates on teacher knowledge in general in section 3.1.5 and then will narrow down the discussion to language teacher knowledge in section 3.1.6.

### **3.1.5 Teacher knowledge**

One of the major debates in the field can be summarized as the dispute over the epistemic nature of knowledge (Fenstermacher, 1994), and therefore this review will introduce the research by that criterion: the first strand is interested in prescribing what teachers should know or the content of knowledge, and concerns itself with Plato's sense of knowledge, "justified true belief". The second strand is concerned with teachers' practical knowledge which involves all aspects of teacher cognition and extends the boundary of the concept of knowledge to subsume all aspects of professional expertise. The first strand is attributed to Shulman (1987); the second strand is commonly attributed to Elbaz (1981, 1983). Elbaz's (ibid.) studies can be linked with another line of research which emphasises the interrelatedness of teacher cognition and emotion including Nias

(2006) and Sutton and Wheatley(2003). These three lines of research will be discussed in turn.

Shulman (1987) presents a model of teachers' knowledge based on a three-year observation of beginning teachers, observations of veteran teachers, and insights gained from a project to develop an assessment for teaching. While he acknowledges the role of beliefs in teaching, his interest mostly concerns knowledge as being justified true belief. He divides teachers' knowledge as such into the following seven categories: knowledge of learners and their characteristics, knowledge of educational contexts, content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, knowledge of educational ends and values, and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK).

*Knowledge of learners and their characteristics* and *knowledge of educational contexts* are self-evident. *Content knowledge* is knowledge about the subject, not just the facts but also their importance and justification. *General pedagogical knowledge* is knowledge about teaching that applies to any subject, such as getting the attention of students and grouping or disciplining them. *Curriculum knowledge* enables the teacher to know the relative importance of a topic and the best point at which to present it within the curriculum, as well as knowing the available materials. *Knowledge of educational ends and values* concerns the goals and usage of the subject knowledge. Finally, *PCK* involves knowledge about how best to teach a certain topic to certain students, which is usually thought to develop from experience, again expanding the boundary of the concept of knowledge to incorporate pedagogic practice, which concept, in due time, was expanded further to incorporate the ethical aspect of teaching expertise by many subsequent researchers. Some of these categories of knowledge provide language for discussing the impact of the TEE scheme in Chapter 8. It is also worth noting that one of Shulman's associates, Grossman (1990), later summarised these seven categories of teacher knowledge into four, subject matter knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, context knowledge (which includes knowledge of

learners), and PCK, because this simplified version is often referred to in different teacher education resources. This version will be used in evaluating the TEE scheme in the data chapters of this thesis.

While the research of Shulman and his colleagues is being well received in teacher evaluation (Wilson, 2009), their research also invites some criticisms, including that of the categories of knowledge being “ more analytical than real”, and that different domains of knowledge are interrelated and meld in practice (Tsui, 2003, p. 58). Additionally, adopting these categories for teacher assessment should proceed with caution since the categories themselves can limit what an evaluative scheme measures, losing sight, in some sense, of the integrative nature of teacher knowledge in practice.

Such problems may be answered if one can find the measure to capture PCK in a teacher evaluation. PCK has been found to be the integrated end-result of the other major categories of teacher knowledge - general pedagogical knowledge, content knowledge, context knowledge, and self knowledge, not just the first two as Shulman (1986) suggests - and such integration is the feature of teaching expertise (Tsui, 2003). This concept needs to be expanded to incorporate the realm of ethics as suggested by McCaughtry (2005), who conducted a case study of one secondary physical education teacher who tried to deal with the issue of access to education by students from less privileged backgrounds. This extension of the concept seems only right, on the assumption that teachers should serve the needs of all students. Some researchers (Borko, Bellamy, & Sanders, 1992; Cochran, DeRuiter, & King, 1993) went further from noting the integratedness of teacher knowledge and found that the degree of integratedness separates the novices from the experts. This finding points out the need to measure such integration of knowledge in teacher evaluation, although operationalising PCK may not be simple. Further discussion of its operationalisation is found in Section 4.3.5.

The expanded view of PCK is perhaps what is pursued in the other strand of research on teacher knowledge, begun by Elbaz, and expanded by Clandinin and Connelly (1995). Elbaz (1981, 1983), based mostly on interviews with and some classroom observations of a teacher, concludes that teachers have ‘practical knowledge’ which is a combination of experiential and theoretical knowledge translated into personal values and beliefs, and that this integrated knowledge has a dialectic relationship with the educational context. She states that the practical knowledge of each content area is structured into three different layers, that is, *image*, or the overarching perspective about education, which, in turn, commands the subsequent levels, *practical principle* and *rules of practice*.

Regarding image, she says:

On this level, the teacher’s feelings, values, needs and beliefs combine as she forms images of how teaching should be, and marshals experience, theoretical knowledge, school folklore, to give substance to these images. (Elbaz, 1983, p. 134)

According to Elbaz (1983), teachers have images for all content categories of knowledge, which are self, curriculum, instruction, educational milieu, and subject matter. Those images coordinate the subsequent level, i.e., the practical principles or purpose for educational practice, as well as the grass root level, rules of practice which determine what to do or how to do it in frequent educational situations. If teacher knowledge is intermeshed with all other areas of cognition as described about image, it will be difficult to attribute teachers’ practice to a single belief or aspect of knowledge and to evaluate the teachers accordingly. This seems to imply that evaluating teachers merely based on a one-time observation may be problematic. Practical suggestions for valid observation will be further discussed in Section 4.3.3.

Elbaz’s (ibid.) ideas about teachers’ practical knowledge were adopted and further developed by Jean Clandinin and Michael Connelly (Borg, 2006). Clandinin (1986) investigates through observation how teachers’ knowledge, conceptualized by

Elbaz (1983), actually functions in classroom practice. She uses the term “personal practical knowledge” (ibid., p.20) to emphasize the individualized nature of teacher knowledge, saying that it is “embodied in person, embedded in culture and based on narrative unity” (ibid., p.177). Clandinin’s conceptualization of teacher knowledge sheds light on the ethical and cultural aspects of teacher knowledge and she cautions the reader not “to judge” her research participants (ibid., p.182) using biases from one’s own practical knowledge. Her argument cautions teacher evaluators against biases which might sanction different but thoroughly legitimate practical knowledge. While Clandinin’s view of knowledge of teachers is very enlightening, it has some limitations. She asserts that the division between theory and practice in research on teaching is unnecessary because, she argues, practice is “theory in action” (ibid., p.20). This view is only partly true because a teacher might take actions that are not in line with his or her knowledge for different reasons, including limitation of contexts, of which Clandinin is well aware; or he or she might possess conflicting views at the same time. To illustrate, E.-J. Kim (2011) reports a case where an English teacher had both positive and negative attitudes toward the communicative approach promoted by the government, her observation being that the teacher’s reported principles were contradicted through her teaching practice because of various constraints, such as the educational culture which prioritizes exam results and her lack of confidence in her English proficiency.

Clandinin and Connelly (1995) link teacher knowledge to teacher identity and practice by describing it as a “body of convictions and meanings, conscious or unconscious, that have arisen from experience (intimate, social, and traditional) and that are expressed in a person’s practice” (ibid., p. 7). This definition does expand the boundary of knowledge to subsume skills and practices, and ethical judgement, encompassing all three of Aristotle’s components of expertise. Clandinin and Connelly’s (1995) research is particularly relevant to my research because it describes teachers’ struggles to cope with imposed knowledge such as educational policy. They note that in many innovations, knowledge gathered from

a certain context is presented as prescriptions after being stripped of the context. They argue that this type of knowledge is perceived as a threat because teachers are not allowed to personalize it, in the sense that teachers are not allowed to question its validity or values. Their research also demands evaluators avoid being the source of “despair” (Clandinin, 1986, p. 162) by defining teacher effectiveness or expertise in too narrow or too shallow a manner. The degree to which the TEE scheme reflects these insights on teacher evaluation will be discussed in Chapters 6 and 7.

Another line of research which can be linked to Elbaz (1981, 1983) is one which investigates the interrelatedness of teacher cognition, emotion, and pedagogic practice. In Elbaz’s (ibid.) description of the image which governs teachers’ pedagogic practice, one can observe the connection among the three. In fact, this connection is supported by many other researchers including Nias (2006), Russell and Munby (1992) and Sutton and Wheatley (2003). They present cognition as either inseparable from emotion or as in a mutually shaping relationship and, in either form, affecting pedagogic practice. Their research is a reminder of an important and ignored aspect of evaluation of teaching, its impact on teachers’ affect. While it is true that it is not easy to consider their affective reactions when evaluating teachers, it is also an important issue that should not be ignored. The impact of the TEE scheme on teachers’ affect is discussed in Chapter 8.

In sum, this section has reviewed two major strands of teacher knowledge research. The first strand concerns itself with the content categories of teacher knowledge, and the other strand views teacher knowledge as highly interrelated with teachers’ beliefs, affect, and their practices. The former will be useful in analysing what is being evaluated in the TEE scheme and what is missing. The latter strand emphasises the interrelatedness between teacher knowledge, beliefs, affect, context and the many aspects that concern their practices, thus shedding light on the complexity of teacher evaluation, particularly when anchoring it through one-time observations by outsiders.

The next two sub-sections will discuss knowledge of language teachers presented in both research-based and professional literature, and its implications for teacher evaluation.

### **3.1.6 Language teacher knowledge**

Considering the specificities of the subject of language discussed in 3.1.2, research on language teacher knowledge deserves a separate discussion. Woods (1996), Tsui (2003) and Borg (2003, 2006) will first be discussed because these researchers are often cited in terms of language teacher knowledge and beliefs, even though their findings do not shed much light on the specificity of language teacher knowledge in comparison to other subject teachers' knowledge. Borg (2003, 2006) however, does discuss the content of knowledge that is specific to particular aspects of teaching such as vocabulary, grammar or literacy instruction.

Interestingly, perhaps reflecting the ongoing situation that English language teachers are the subject of increased numbers of pedagogical innovations, both Woods (1996) and Tsui (2003) discuss teacher knowledge in relation to teachers' change and development. Woods (1996), based on ethnographic interviews and introspective talk about classes with, and observations of, eight different teachers working at the tertiary level, concludes that teacher cognition is an intermeshed system of beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge that is employed in instructional decisions. He finds teachers do not use the terms "know" and "believe" differentially when they discuss their beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge; thus, he uses the acronym BAK, the first letter of the three terms. Most importantly, his research convincingly encourages readers to change their approach to educational change. He proposes that anybody who aims for teacher change should provide teachers with opportunities for reflection and interaction rather than one-size-fits-all prescriptions for effective ways of instruction that may not serve the specific teachers' context, and in this he is in line with Clandinin and Connelly (1995). Such a view has influenced teacher education programs to incorporate systematic reflection as one of its components to help with professional



development (e.g. Graves, 2009). The same is suggested for teacher evaluation aiming for teacher change and development (e.g. Stronge and Tucker, 2003).

Tsui (2003) focuses on teacher cognition and its dialectical relationship with teaching practice. After reviewing previous research on teacher knowledge, she concludes that teachers' knowledge is integrated and context-specific PCK when it is effective, shaping and being shaped by the educational context. The cognitive characteristics of experts which were identified by her and have implications for this study are as follows. First, experts can better integrate various aspects of knowledge in practice. Second, experts actively and continuously look for chances of self-development. Third, often experts and non-experts do not differ in terms of what they can or cannot do but, rather, in knowing when to do it and why. As an example, she presents the control of a class. While the expert allows on-task noises, the non-expert tries to ensure absolute silence in the classroom at all times, which is an unreasonable goal that results in the teacher's unnecessary emotional distress. Her clarification as such has the following implications for teacher evaluation: a scheme which aims to evaluate expertise should look at the degree of knowledge integration in practice, and records of development. Finally, it should not stop at checking the existence of certain competences but also take into account the judgment of their use at the right time.

Agreeing with several other researchers who advocate the use of transparent terms, Borg (2003, 2006) uses the term cognition instead of knowledge to collate research studies that focus on different aspects of teacher cognition, such as knowledge and beliefs. The major findings of his reviews include the following: teachers have cognition about all aspects of teaching; cognition develops through reflection; cognition becomes the lens through which teachers interpret and incorporate new information; teachers' cognition has a dialectic relationship with teaching practice; educational context shapes teacher cognition as well as teaching practice.

Discussion of all these three researchers does not highlight the specificity of teaching English; however, some of the topics for further research on teacher cognition suggested by Borg (2006) open up the possibility of investigating this specificity. Borg (2006) identifies the gaps in the research which apply to all subjects and those which apply specifically to language education. For the latter, he identifies, as a research gap, research conducted outside English speaking countries and at secondary schools in state sector education. Although Borg (2006) makes no mention of it, his review reveals the scant attention given to cognition of teachers who teach English as a subject that integrates all language skills, as a typical English class would do in most South Korean and UK contexts. It also shows that there is a research gap on the development of English language in-service teachers to whom English is not their first language.

Before I leave the section, I will review those few studies which discuss the specificity of language teacher knowledge. S. Andrews (2007) sums up the uniqueness of language teacher knowledge as their proficiency in the language. That is, the knowledge of language teachers differs from other subject teachers' knowledge in that in addition to the content knowledge and pedagogic knowledge, the language teacher needs to have proficiency in the target language, a skill. This difference is agreed on by Freeman, Orzulak, and Morrissey (2009) who divide the content knowledge of language teachers into knowing the language or commanding language as a skill, and knowing about the language. The proficiency seems to be important because it affects teachers' pedagogic practice (Eslami & Fatahi, 2008). It also affects their effectiveness perceived by their colleagues. For instance, Park and Lee (2006) surveyed English teachers about their perceptions on effectiveness, and found that teachers considered English competence to be the most important factor for deciding teachers' effectiveness, out of the three factors of effectiveness of English teachers, that is, English competence, pedagogy of English, and socio-affective skills.

Another issue related to teachers' English proficiency is discussed by S. Andrews (2007), that is, the relationship between the teacher and the target language. He points out the difficulties non-native speaking English teachers<sup>7</sup> (non-NESTs) go through, that is, stigmatisation for not possessing the native speakers' proficiency, and their relative strength (declarative knowledge about the target language and knowledge of language learning strategies) and weakness (proficiency in the target language) as compared to the native speaking teachers – although he is aware of the limitations of the dichotomy because language is not simply a bio-developmental matter, and also nativeness is a matter of degree.

The issue of the relationship between the teachers and the target language is a field which is receiving increasingly more attention. It particularly discusses relationship between teachers' English proficiency - as perceived by themselves and students – and their confidence (see e.g. Kirkpatrick, 2007; Rajagopalan, 2005). Teachers' English proficiency is also linked with teachers' perceptions of their credibility as English teachers and with their sense of security and authority as teachers, perhaps because in many contexts English proficiency is a major criteria for selecting English teachers rather than their ability to teach it (Braine, 1999). This view that native speakers make better teachers than qualified non-NESTs is termed "native-speakerism" (Holliday, 2006) or "native speaker fallacy" (Phillipson, 1992). This line of research also notes the absurdity of this phenomenon (e.g., Canagarajah, 1999; Jenkins, 2009). Widdowson (1994, cited in Jenkins, 2009, p. 120) presents a witty and succinct simile of the situation: he likens this phenomenon to granting authority to teach about geography of a region to its residents.

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<sup>7</sup> Medgyes (1992) suggests non-native speaking EFL teachers as an alternative term; however, the term EFL itself is controversial and, also, because native speaking English teachers represent the concept used in the South Korean context better, I will use this term.

The participants of this thesis being non-NESTs, their proficiency may be one of their concerns, particularly because the TEE scheme measures their proficiency as a part of the certification. Teachers' perceptions in relation to different aspects of their knowledge and its influence on their engagement with the promoted pedagogic practice will be touched on in Chapter 7. Other than this line of research on language awareness or knowledge about language, there seems to be little theoretical literature on the content of language teacher knowledge, particularly in the form of the PCK. However, in order to evaluate the validity of the TEE scheme, the areas of procedural knowledge which language teachers should possess need to be examined: one of the tools used in the scheme, a written test, mainly aims to assess procedural knowledge of language teachers as will be discussed in section 6.2.4. Therefore, the final section will present areas of language teachers' PCK which I have developed, drawing on professional literature. Crude as it is, it will provide a reference point against which the validity of the written test can be judged.

### **3.1.7 Pedagogic content knowledge of language teachers drawn from professional literature**

I analysed six resources on English language teaching, which were published in the UK (Harmer, 2007; Hedge, 2000), the US (Celce-Murcia, 2001; Crookes, 2003), and South Korea (Im, 2007; S. O. Park, 2000) as well as syllabuses for teacher training programmes for both pre- and in-service teachers of these three countries (International TEFL and TESOL Training, ca. 2013a, ca. 2013b; Seoul Education Training Institute, 2010a, 2010b; University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations, 2004, 2008) in order to identify the areas of subject-specific knowledge. I consulted resources from the UK and the US rather than eliciting skills from South Korean sources only, because these two countries exert a strong influence on the South Korean ELT community both in pre- and in-service education; throughout my career, I have observed that the South Korean ELT community looks to these two countries for ideas on ELT.

In choosing individual resources, I considered the popularity and availability of these materials within each country. I also considered the target audience and selected from both pre- and in-service materials, so that any contents which might have been omitted as being less relevant for each group can be included in the synthesized areas of practice. The results show that the content of resources for or programmes of language teacher education consists of pedagogic knowledge that is needed for any subject and for language education specific knowledge. Notably none of them discuss the ability of teachers to use English, although most discuss strategic competence, in terms of teacher talk. The authors may have assumed that all teachers have sufficient command of English required in teaching and thus their ability to use English themselves is not an issue. However, this is a very sensitive and significant issue for a non-native English teacher that requires due attention. As discussed in the previous section, it may affect their teaching, their evaluation by colleagues, and, most tellingly, their confidence and sense of security.

The review of this professional literature agrees with the previous discussion that different categories of language teacher knowledge are integrated when effective (e.g. Tsui, 2003). For instance, on instruction of vocabulary, several resources suggest that the teacher should be able to help learners to link new words with the existing concept or words they already know, and to learn different aspects of vocabulary other than meaning such as syntax, collocation and style. The suggestion assumes that the teacher knows what new vocabulary is needed for the learners (knowledge of learners, context, and curriculum) and how to help them link the existing and new knowledge (pedagogical knowledge), as well as different aspects of vocabulary (content knowledge), and incorporate them in a way to facilitate learning in the form of PCK.

The areas of PCK identified through the analysis of this professional literature are presented in Appendix 2. In presenting the resultant areas of practice and competences, I adapted the framework by Kyriacou (1998) for presenting the

areas of general practice. The presentation of the ELT-specific practice followed the composition of most teacher handbooks. The items were included in each area of content knowledge when half of at least one category of sources, that is, either resource books or syllabuses discusses them. This is simply a list of components that could be identified in those books, and I have not attempted to make it exhaustive or to organise it systematically. However, it provides a glimpse into what is discussed in these materials. As pointed out above, the materials cover PCK generic to any subject teaching and PCK specific to ELT. PCK generic to any subject teaching as identified from the resources consists of planning and preparation, instruction, classroom environment, assessment, and professional development. ELT specific PCK consists of how to teach three linguistic components, that is, pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar, as well as the four language skills, that is, listening, speaking, reading and writing. Teaching methodology is discussed just as an issue, and the authors state that they do not espouse a particular approach, but suggest teachers to use their discretion and combine different approaches appropriately (Hedge, 2000, p. 179) or choose one which suits the context and learners (Harmer, 2007, p. 77).

### **3.1.8 Section summary**

Section 3.1 reviews research on expertise and knowledge of language teachers. It discusses the context-specificity of teaching expertise, which is shaped by the learners, the school and the professional context as well as the teachers themselves, along with its components. It presents both narrow and wider conceptualisation of teacher knowledge, interrelatedness of its different aspects and the integration of all areas of knowledge as a feature of teaching expertise. The discussion in this section also suggests the difficulty of evaluating teachers reflecting all the issues related to, and the complex nature of, teacher expertise and knowledge. It identifies proficiency in the target language as the uniqueness of the knowledge of language teachers compared with that of other subject teachers. It also presents a preliminary list of areas of PCK needed for language

teaching based on professional literature. Finally and most importantly, it identifies the following research gap relevant to teacher evaluation: an investigation of the development of expertise of in-service teachers whose first language is not English, at a secondary state school context. Searches through main bibliographic databases have not identified any research conducted on such topics as of this writing, and the present research contributes to filling this research gap by looking at professional development of in-service English teachers in South Korea through the TEE certification scheme.

## **3.2 Teacher development and pedagogical changes**

The aims of the TEE scheme include development of teachers' expertise and the scheme also involves some training for the advanced level; therefore, there is a need to understand how teacher development can best be facilitated.

Understanding the nature of teacher development has implication for contexts outside South Korea, because modern society features constant and rapid changes, which requires all teachers to continuously develop (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Day, 1999; Larsen-Freeman, 2012). This section will briefly discuss this topic. It starts with a discussion of studies on the nature of teacher development, followed by discussion of the content and processes of teacher development. The topic of teacher development will be picked up again later in the next chapter where intersections among teacher development, educational policy, and teacher evaluation will be explored.

### **3.2.1 Teacher change and teachers' identities**

Teacher development is widely viewed in the literature as a complex process, partly because it involves working on teacher identity (Tsui, 2007; Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005). Before discussing the relationship between teacher change and teacher identity, the concept of identity itself needs some discussion because it is a contested concept (Varghese et al., 2005) and different disciplines adopt a different stance and focus toward the concept, even within the

field of language teaching and learning. (For an overview of different uses of the concept, see Morgan and Clarke, 2011).

Brubaker (2004) divides the use of the term into “strong conceptions” and “weak or “soft” conceptions.” The former emphasises the stability of the self-sense; the latter, fluidity and realisation of self-sense in daily interactions. For the latter use, he suggests three alternative terms, that is, 1) identification and categorisation, 2) self-understanding and social location, and 3) commonality, connectedness, groupness. *Identification and categorisation* is locating oneself in a category in terms of relation (e.g., kinship or friendship) or of attributes (e.g., gender) in different contexts. It can be done both by self or others (including discourse) through a recursive process. *Self-understanding and social location* is “one’s sense of who one is, of one’s social location, and of how (given the first two) one is prepared to act” (Brubaker, 2004, p. 44). This concept focuses on cognitive, rather than sub-conscious, understanding of the selfhood and one’s social locatedness and, in return, how this understanding governs the actions of the person. Third, *commonality, connectedness, and groupness* refer to three common ways one understands self in relation to a certain group, through common attributes, relational ties and affinities one feels regarding the group. The concept with which this thesis is concerned is highly associated with Brubaker’s second suggestion for the weak conception of identity, self-understanding and social location, because when teachers describe their views and experience of the TEE scheme, they explicitly or implicitly present their own views of being a teacher or certain type of teacher (e.g., a good teacher) and then discuss their views of the promoted teaching and whether they are ready to adopt them. However, the meanings that this term excludes or marginalises according to Brubaker - that is, others’ (e.g., the TEE scheme) categorisation or understanding of the person which may ‘override’ or ‘overcome’ the self-concept, the affective dimension of the sense of self, and the constant and objective aspect of the selfhood or strong conception of identity - also concern the interest of this thesis. Thus, I will use the term identity for the comprehensiveness of its meaning, in the sense of a person’s rather constant



understanding of the self and their social position which is shaped by both self and others and which directs their actions.

The word identity is used in a sense similar to what is adopted in this thesis in some literature on teacher development. For instance, Kiely and Askham (2012) in their literature review for their case study on pre-service teachers' development, use the term identity and explain that it is related to teachers' professional activities in the ways they (p.502):

- relate to their work and context;
- understand, construct, and perform their professional tasks;
- understand how others (such as policymakers) see their role;
- draw on personal values in informing their decisions; and
- reflect and learn as they negotiate change in the work environment.

From this list, it can be inferred that these authors use the term identity as concerning self-understanding which governs one's professional actions. At the same time, the use incorporates others' understanding of them (third bullet point) and features consistency because they describe identity as something that is related to personal values (fourth bullet point). Finally, they later explain the changes the participants go through in terms of their identity through the pre-service training as an emotional experience.

Another important aspect of teacher identity Kiely and Askham (*ibid.*) note, that is, community-specificity, is also argued for by Cross and Gearon (2007). In their multiple-case study they argue that teachers' professional actions display teachers' identity, which they argue is shaped by the culture of the community. This explains the uniqueness shared by my teacher participants against teachers outside the South Korean contexts. For instance, most teachers describe the

image of an effective teacher they aspire to be in relation to the degree they help students to obtain high marks at the College Scholastic Ability Test, as will be discussed in Chapter 7.

Of these aspects of teacher identity noted above, its relative constancy is important for this thesis. This relative stability of teacher identity which was also noted by other researchers (e.g. Alsup, 2006; Kiernan, 2010) provides insights into the procedure of teacher development and change. That is, when the promoted changes in a teacher development programme are not congruent with a teacher's identity, there will be some resistance and discomfort. Educational innovations which involve reconceptualisation of teaching and professionalism as is often the case will also meet some resistance (Day, Elliot, & Kington, 2005; Gewirtz, Mahony, Hextall, & Cribb, 2009; Maguire & Dillon, 2007).

In many cases, these teacher development programmes and innovations entail a need for teachers to work in a way that is new to them and to be re-evaluated because certain innovations prioritise and marginalise certain abilities. Perhaps that is why the teacher development process is very often described as emotional (Hargreaves, 1995, 1998). It involves emotions because it entails self-scrutiny and reassessment of what they have been doing and requires relearning and unlearning which can be destabilising (Roberts, 1998), in addition to the fact that teaching itself is "an emotionally charged activity" (Scott & Sutton, 2009). This is why any attempt to change teachers should accompany emotional support such as informing that the process of change involves uncertainty and destabilisation and not holding them accountable for the risk-taking and trial-and-error process (Hayes, 2012a; Palmer, 1993; Schmidt & Datnow, 2005; Waugh & Godfrey, 1993). When the procedure of these includes some form of official assessment, they have more potential for far-reaching impact on teachers' identities and discomfort, which applies to the TEE scheme. Literature on innovations will provide further insight into related issues in the next chapter.

Kubanyiova's (2009) case study on practice change of eight non-native English teachers on a 20 hour teacher education programme has a particular relevance to this thesis. It explains why some teachers accept the promoted changes and others do not in relation to teacher identity. This is useful for understanding teachers' participation in the TEE scheme, which can be described as 'semi-voluntary', in that teachers can opt not to participate but there is substantial pressure for them to become certified. Her discussion is based on Dörnyei's (2005) model which draws on psychological theories of self and which proposes the self as consisting of three dimensions, the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and the current self. Dörnyei's (ibid.) model, which concerns language learners, proposes that people change when their future self images match the promoted direction of changes, and when they see the gap between the default future self that they become without much effort and 'the ideal self' that a person wants to be or 'the ought self' that they think others want them to be. Finally, it also proposes that people will move away from 'the feared self' which they do not want to be. Kubanyiova (2009) finds this model holds for teacher development. Teachers adopt the teaching style as proposed by the teacher education programme when the following two conditions are met: first, their ideal self matches the ought self that is promoted through the promoted practices; second, they notice the gap between their current practice and the promoted practice.

Kubanyiova's (ibid.) study, as informative as it is for understanding why certain teachers adopt the reform agenda and why others do not, does not explain how one can help teachers notice the gap. Russell and Munby (1992) who discuss the catalyst for teacher development, seem to provide one answer. Inspired by Schön (1983), they present reflection as that which helps teachers notice the gap. The nature of the reflection required for this transformation is explained in Schön's two core terms, *reflection-on-action* and *reflection-in-action*. Reflection-on-action is about pondering over past events, and reflection-in-action concerns reframing, or hearing or seeing things differently while teachers are engaged in teaching. Considering its crucial role, any scheme which aims to change teachers needs to

provide teachers with the opportunities that are conducive to such reflection. Previous research shows that discussion of critical incidents with other participants induces such reflection (e.g. Graves, 2009; Kiely and Davis, 2010; Korthagen and Kessels, 1999). The extent to which the TEE scheme provides opportunities for reflection will be discussed in Chapter 7.

### 3.2.2 Content and process of teacher change

To draw on the limited attempt to systematically analyse teachers' professional development (Guskey, 2000; Harland & Kinder, 1997; Muijs & Lindsay, 2008; Opfer, Pedder, & Lavicza, 2011), development of teachers per se – excluding resultant impact on their context and students – could be divided into roughly two areas: teacher learning and their actual use of new knowledge and skills. For instance, in their discussion of levels of impact of professional development programmes by Muijs and Lindsay (2008), two areas concern teacher development: participant learning and participants' use of new knowledge and skills (For the areas of the impact identified by Muijs and Lindsay (*ibid.*), see Table 1). The former, participant learning, is subdivided into cognitive, affective and behavioural learning, and the listed examples for this area include awareness-raising, gaining knowledge, changes in attitudes, and development of skills. These identified areas of teacher development will be drawn on in Chapter 8 which discusses the impact of the TEE certification on teacher development.

**Table 1 Summary of Muijs and Lindsay's (2008) levels of impact of teacher education**

Levels of impact	Examples
1. Participant satisfaction (pre-requisite for professional development)	Participants' enjoyment of the event, perceived usefulness, addressing needs, presentation and organisation of the event
2. Participant learning	cognitive, affective or behavioural learning
3. Organisational change and support	organisational level outcomes and support

4. Participants' use of new knowledge and skills	non-use, novice use, expert use
5. Student learning outcome	cognitive , non-cognitive outcomes (e.g. attitudes)
6. Value for money	cost-effectiveness

Cabaroglu and Roberts' (2000) study on belief changes of new teachers provides further insight into the nature of cognitive changes. They have identified eleven categories of teacher belief changes: no change, pretended change, awareness/realisation, confirmation of existing beliefs, reconstruction of beliefs, addition of new beliefs, re-ordering in terms of importance, renaming of an existing concept, connecting existing concepts, rejection of existing or new ideas, and accommodating a new idea which is opposite to the previous belief. These changes can be roughly summarised into awareness raising, gaining new knowledge, and changes in beliefs.

The two features of teachers' cognitive change which are noted by Cabaroglu and Roberts' study (*ibid.*), that is, its recursive and gradual nature, seem to connect with the gradual changes of teacher identity. Another feature of cognitive changes I can infer from the categories of changes identified by the authors is subtlety. Subtlety suggests the difficulty of observing and making judgment on whether or not teacher change happens through teacher education programmes. This difficulty in turn has implications for discussing impact of a teacher development programme, which will inform discussion on the impact of the TEE certification in Chapter 8.

The gradual nature of teacher development also applies to change in pedagogic practice. In her case study of teacher change, Pennington (1996) notes that teachers need time to "digest and process" new information, which involves a recursive process of reflection. In 3.1.5, PCK, context and learner-specific procedural knowledge of teaching was pointed out as a crucial element for

expert performance. It was also noted that PCK develops only through experience. Therefore, it is not surprising that teachers require time before they perform expertly with a newly promoted pedagogy. This is why follow-up opportunities to engage further with the promoted pedagogy are emphasised for any teacher education to have meaningful impact (Lamb, 1995; Sim, 2011).

Another prominent theme in the teacher development literature is the process or the cycle of teacher development (Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; Guskey, 2000; Muijs & Lindsay, 2008; Pennington, 1995, 1996; Waters & Vilches, 2001). Despite differences in the terms or categorisation that were used across researchers and the scope of their interest, there are some commonalities in the discussion across those studies. First, teacher development or change has degrees, from superficial to profound levels. Second, development induced by external directives is rather directional. That is, the development starts from changes in awareness or understanding of the changes. It goes through obtaining knowledge and skills required for realising the intended changes. Where relevant, changes involve teachers' values and identities, which are often presented as pre-requisite for teachers' adoption of the promoted changes in their day-to-day practice. This is particularly the case when the practice is not under the scrutiny of initiators of the directives. The suggestion that change of teacher beliefs or cognition precedes change in ordinary pedagogical practices is supported by a plethora of studies on teacher cognition (Borg, 2006; Wilkins, 2008; D. Woods, 1996) as was discussed in section 3.1. Additionally the proposition that teachers' pedagogical changes in daily practices requires teachers' changes in their very person ties with some researchers' conceptualisation of pedagogy as the person's identity (e.g. Morgan, 2004). Finally, these studies suggest that adoption of the promoted changes into the daily practice requires systematic changes, that is, the contexts, material or cultural, should be supportive of the intended changes. In general terms, I agree that teacher development tends to follow this order when it is induced by external initiatives; however, I am also aware of the discursive and interrelated nature of these aspects of teacher development (Opfer et al., 2011). As Larsen-

Freeman (2012) emphasises, teacher development is a complex process. The process of teacher development understood as such will inform my analysis of teachers' adoption of the promoted practice through the TEE scheme in Chapter 8.

### **3.3 Chapter summary**

This chapter explored the literature which forms the background for understanding and evaluating the process of the TEE certification. Section 3.1 discussed the nature of expertise and its components in order to form the basis for the judgement of the validity of the TEE scheme. It pointed out the social nature of expertise, thus highlighting the importance of the educational culture which influences teachers' concepts of expertise, and the possible tension when a government-led innovation assumes a different view of expertise from the one shared by teachers. In discussing one of its components, teacher knowledge, it has been pointed out that experts' knowledge is procedural (knowing how), that it integrates all areas of knowledge in practice, and is interrelated with teachers' affect and identity. This shows that for an evaluation to be valid and to achieve its aims, it should consider these features in its design and implementation. This section also identified a research gap on development of in-service teachers for whom English is not the first language in the contexts of state schools and an EFL setting, which justifies the chosen participants and context of this research. Section 3.2 briefly discussed the gradual and personal nature and procedure of teacher development. The degree to which the discussion in this chapter is reflected in the TEE scheme will affect the validity and impact of the scheme, which will be discussed in Chapters 7 and 8. In the next chapter, the factors that contribute to the effectiveness of a curricular innovation in the form of a certification will be explored.

## **Chapter 4      Curricular Innovation, Teacher Evaluation and Teacher Development**

### **4.0 Introduction**

This chapter explores the approaches to change teachers and their teaching. In increasingly more contexts, innovations regarding English language teaching (ELT) are being carried out, but most have proved unsuccessful (Wedell, 2009) and Korea is not an exception in its rather unsuccessful attempt to change its ELT practices as reported in many studies (e.g., E.-J. Kim, 2011; Li, 1998). The Teaching English through English (TEE) scheme is one of those initiatives to change the ELT practices. Drawing on theories, frameworks, and empirical research studies which are related to different aspects of the scheme, this chapter forms the basis of evaluation of the scheme in terms of its design, implementation, and impact which will be discussed in three data chapters of this thesis, Chapters 6, 7, and 8. This chapter starts from a broad perspective of curricular innovations in general (4.1), then focuses on a specific type, innovation as a policy (4.2), and finally narrows its focus to the issues specific to evaluating teachers and certifying them (4.3).

### **4.1 Government-led curricular innovations**

As discussed in Chapter 2, the Ministry of Education (MOE) has long pursued change in English education to raise students' English communicative competence, as a response to globalisation (Yim, 2007). The TEE scheme forms a part of this government-led innovation. The TEE scheme is distinctive from other policies of the same purpose in that it tries to change individual teachers' pedagogic practice directly in order to change English language education, rather than through schools. For the government to attempt to change education through changing teachers is a sensible move; considering that their pedagogic practice proves a prominent factor that affects the outcome of education (Gitomer, 2009a; Reynolds, Muijs, & Treharne, 2003). On the other hand, as is commonly



acknowledged and will be discussed below, the process of such innovations is fraught with problems and barriers. This section will discuss previous research which identifies problem areas and ways to ensure success of those innovations.

#### **4.1.1 Success of an innovation, success factors, and frameworks for its evaluation**

Waters (2009) defines innovation as “the attempt to bring about beneficial change” (p.421). Succinct as it is, his use of the word “attempt” which implies its possible failure leaves one with questions regarding what constitutes success, what would ensure success and how success can be evaluated. These issues will be dealt with in order in this subsection.

The first issue that deserves attention is the meaning of success of any innovation. Towndrow, Silver, and Albright (2010) note that the evaluation of the degree of success of an innovation is partly decided by practicality of the goals. They point out that in many innovations the standard of success is set too ambitiously against ideal situations, which makes obtaining success almost impossible. Researchers on policy process also agree on the need for setting a practical goal (e.g., S. J. Ball, Maguire, and Braun, 2012). This insight suggests the need to reconsider the meaning of success of an ELT innovation. Rather than achievement of all set aims, subtle or partial changes may need to be considered as a success. This implication ties in with discussion of the subtle, recursive and gradual nature of teachers’ cognitive change as discussed in the previous chapter. The chapter also notes that teachers’ beliefs have a dialectical relationship with their pedagogical practice. This in turn suggests that innovations such as the TEE scheme may not be accompanied by instant changes in teachers’ practice or even in their cognition. Thus, in determining success of the scheme, more moderate aims may need to be set. Section 3.2.2 identifies possible content of teacher change; it reports that changes such as awareness or understanding of the promoted change, obtaining related knowledge and skills, and change in values may precede change in day-to-

day practice. Therefore, the impact of the TEE scheme will be divided into these two groups and considered separately in Chapter 8.

There is, however, a much more important issue to be considered in relation to success of an innovation, that is, the legitimacy of the agenda of an innovation. If the promoted curricular innovation is ill-informed (which issue will be taken up in the next section) its success itself may not be possible or desirable. In the Korean context, educational policies are formed often through policy borrowing as discussed in section 2.2, and policies related to English language teaching are not exceptions. As discussed in 2.8, the TEE scheme is a part of a policy package which prescribes certain ways of teaching drawing on ideas developed by applied linguists in countries such as the US and the UK. The plausible assumptions for adopting those ideas include their applicability to the context. However, as many researchers including Clandinin and Connelly (1995), Canagarajah (2005) and Pennycook (1994) have asserted, language teaching practice which has been developed in one context is difficult to be transferred into another due to different cultural and historical assumptions about education, as well as different resources available such as textbooks.

Second, it would be meaningful to examine previous findings on success factors for innovations. P. Woods (2012) makes a large number of suggestions after reviewing twenty-one cases of ELT innovations. Of these, some which have relevance for the TEE scheme could be summarised according to the stages of innovation. The phases of innovation and policy processes are interconnected and recursive; however, factors that contribute to the success of an innovation are to be discussed in terms of phases, for ease of organisation (Jann & Wegrich, 2007). At the design stage, an innovation should be sufficiently informed by the experts, consensus about its agenda should be drawn out among the stakeholders, enough time should be allowed for it to settle, long-term support should be planned, and the context should be fully understood. To further discuss the final two points, long-term support involves building in professional learning as an on-going

process and providing follow-up learning opportunities (Hayes, 2012b; Sim, 2011). Understanding the local context involves working out the detailed aspects of the present condition of the context, not just in terms of the aimed state (Waters & Vilches, 2001). The three aspects of the context that were commonly identified as needing consideration for an innovation to succeed are educational culture, including the goals of education and high-stake exams, material constraints, and the local expertise of teachers (Kiely, 2012; Markee, 1997; Rubdy, 2008).

The topic of impact will be fully discussed in 4.2.5; however, one aspect will be noted here. Regarding the implementation phase, factors identified by P. Woods (2012) include opportunities for the participants to make the agenda of the innovation as their own and to feel empowered, clear communication of the assumptions of the innovation among different groups of participants, change of the context to make it facilitative of the innovation, and understanding change as a gradual process of learning. These factors in different combinations are mentioned as crucial by other researchers including Markee (1997), Park & Sung (2013), and Waters and Vilches (2001). Two practical aspects deserve attention for an effective curricular innovation. First, teaching materials that suit the new pedagogy should be developed, because teachers identify provision of appropriate teaching and learning materials as one of their major concerns (E-J. Kim, 2011; Park & Sung, 2013). Developing appropriate materials requires assistance, because it is not an easy matter for a person new to the promoted pedagogy to produce quality materials as pointed out by Markee (1997, p. 126). Second, teacher education should go beyond the level of induction as Waters and Vilches (2001) suggest; teachers need to be given opportunities to personalise the promoted pedagogy.

Regarding impact, a very telling observation was made by Hayes (2012a). Drawing on his previous research on in-service English teacher training programmes in South Korea, Hayes observes that the government repeatedly problematises the language proficiency of English language teachers. He suggests that this deficit

discourse has significantly affected teachers, because it was internalised by them. Although his observation concerns the effect of repeated negative evaluation on teachers, it may apply as well to one incidence of negative evaluation from the TEE certification.

The final issue to be clarified is how to evaluate the success of an innovation. Wedell's (2009) article provides a basis for developing a broad framework for evaluating an innovation. Drawing on previous research on ELT innovations, he identifies four aspects which decide the success of an innovation: appraisal of the context, characteristics of the innovation, its implementation process, and consideration of the wider system. This framework, as well as studies on the cycle of teacher development (e.g., Muijs & Lindsay, 2008) discussed in the previous chapter and research on policy process (e.g., McNeil and Coppola, 2006) which will be discussed in the next section, informs discussion of the impact of the TEE scheme in Chapter 8.

#### **4.1.2 Section summary**

This section briefly discussed the need to acknowledge partial success of an innovation, factors that contribute to its success and frameworks to evaluate it. However, the process of innovation is not as simple as can be inferred from discussion in this section. It is because the plan for an innovation is an idea drawn against an ideal situation, but when it is implemented, all different actors and contextual features, as well as time, interact to create an innovation that is different from the design. The next section will discuss what constitutes the complexity and how to document it.

### **4.2 Public policy and teacher evaluation**

In the South Korean context, most educational innovations are initiated by the central or regional governmental bodies through policy statements. The TEE scheme, the topic of this thesis, has gone through an interesting trajectory. It was designed and executed by the educational office in Seoul as a part of a policy

package which was made in response to a government-level policy of improvement of English education. It was then adopted by the government and expanded to the entire nation. The rules generated through this process again led to a revision of the original scheme (Details of the scheme will be discussed in Chapter 6). As such, the scheme has gone through a complex and organic process of implementation. This section discusses literature which helps understand the dynamic process the scheme has gone through. This section starts with discussion of the concept of policy (4.2.1) and approaches to policy research (4.2.2). Then it discusses issues of policy process in relation to each phase of policy processes (4.2.3 –4.2.5). Finally, findings from previous research on the perceptions of teacher evaluation policy and its impact on teachers and teaching, which informed my identifying and interpreting the key themes in my data, will be discussed (4.2.6).

#### **4.2.1 Conceptualisation of policy**

Public policy has been defined and conceptualized in different ways. A traditional view of it is “the plans...developed by politicians and their advisors” (Maguire & Dillon, 2007, p. 29). Some conceptualizations emphasize different aspects of policy process. For instance, Prunty (1985, in Gale, 2007, p.220) notes the role of power which gives voice to selected groups; Smith’s definition “deliberate choice of action or inaction” focuses on how some issues are deliberately kept out of policy space (Smith, 1976, cited in M. Hill, 2005, p.7). Others focus on the different assumptions around a policy. For instance, Fischer (2003), after presenting a working definition of policy as “a political agreement on a course of action or (inaction) designed to resolve or mitigate problems on the political agenda” (p.61), emphasises that this ‘agreement’ is fluid. This fluidity comes from the fact that people who are related and interested in the policy, including designers, discussants or even researchers, have differing assumptions about what constitutes problems and solutions. Still others (e.g. M. Hill, 2005; Ball, 2006) focus on the practiced policy, noting that the policy texts are only a very limited

part of policy process, and the actual realized procedures and outcomes differ qualitatively from the designed ones.

These various aspects of policy flagged up through these definitions seem to be best distilled in S. J. Ball's (1993) delineation of "policy as text and policy as discourse" (p.10). S. J. Ball's understanding reflects his bilateral stance toward understanding of policy: that of policy enforcers, and that of those who are affected. More importantly, however, he notes the blurred division between the two parties, drawing on his ethnographic research. Additionally, according to his explanation of his definition of policy, he incorporates all the issues and concerns raised in the definitions cited above, such as the rather arbitrary nature of agenda setting, different assumptions among stakeholders, and the fluid nature of a policy. S. J. Ball and his colleagues, Maguire and Braun, (2012) further explicate this concept in the school context, particularly regarding the position of teachers in relation to policy:

....policy will be taken as texts and 'things' (legislation and national strategies) but also as discursive processes that are complexly configured, contextually mediated and institutionally rendered. Policy is done by and done to teachers; they are actors and subjects, subject to and objects of policy (p.3).

Their conception of policy, emphasizing the reciprocal relationship between policy and teachers, is particularly resonant for me because I am a researcher with a very distinctive position in relation to the TEE scheme. I was, on the one hand, involved in developing the evaluation scheme, but at the same time I may be subject to the power of the scheme once I go back to the Korean context.

Additionally, the dual rendering of policy, that is, policy as the things that are produced by the enforcers and policy as a process that is recursive or constantly being rewritten, informs this thesis. That is, in most cases, when the term policy is used, it refers to the statements and documents produced for the TEE scheme or for the policies of which the scheme forms a part. However, in reality, it is very

difficult to differentiate what constitutes the policy texts, because the actors realising the TEE scheme - such as subject supervisors, administrators in the educational office, the research institute involved, the teacher training institute and the trainers - all produced texts, and they feed back on the policy process itself, reciprocally, and jointly shape up the policy. Thus, sometimes when I use the term policy, it refers to this endless re-creative process of policy realisation.

Having clarified the term and concept of policy used in this thesis, I will briefly discuss the trajectory of policy research. Research into policy has developed various key themes as well as approaches (see Fischer, Miller and Sidney, 2007 for a comprehensive overview of the field; see also M. Hill, 2009). Out of these I will discuss those which have direct relevance to this thesis, that is, approaches to policy research as well as issues concerning each phase of the policy process which will inform researching and analysing the procedure and impact of the TEE scheme.

#### **4.2.2 Researching policy process and policy cycle**

It is generally agreed that historically there have been three approaches to policy research: top-down; bottom-up; and hybrid, synthetic or eclectic approaches (e.g., M. Hill, 2005; M. Hill and Hupe, 2002; Pülzl and Treib, 2007). M. Hill and Hupe (2002) present a clear explanation of the three approaches. A top-down approach separates policy implementation from policy formation and is interested in controlling policy implementation and in identifying the factors which help a policy achieve its aims (pp. 43, 58). By contrast, noting the fact that almost all policies have gaps between the original aims and the actual implementation, some researchers approach policy differently, from the bottom-up. Researchers with this approach view policy as an on-going process: they do not differentiate between design and implementation because they argue that policy is not complete at the point of inception but, rather, takes its form during the process of carrying it out. This approach is interested in the evolution of a policy and roles of different actors rather than the unidirectional process of its 'implementation'. It is

not so much interested in whether the original aims are achieved or not, because it considers the gap between the policy aims and outcome as an integral part of a policy process (ibid. p.197).

Other researchers have suggested a synthetic approach, claiming that neither of these approaches presents a complete view of policy, stating that only when they are combined is a policy fully understood. While acknowledging the complexities of policy process and the roles of actors, these researchers are also interested in the accountability of policy (e.g. McNeil and Coppola, 2006), or at least how the policy positions and impacts on the subjects (e.g. S. J. Ball, Maguire, Braun, & Hoskins, 2011a, 2011b). Since the aim of this thesis is both exploration of the policy process and probing ways to improve the current certification scheme of English language teachers, this thesis takes the eclectic approach and investigates the processes by which the TEE scheme evolves as well as the degree to which the TEE scheme fulfils its own aim.

For organising and systemising the research on policy, the policy cycle consisting of phases of policy process is often used, although the policy phases are interrelated and recursive (Jann & Wegrich, 2007). The phases of a policy are categorized in varied ways across researchers, but they can be roughly divided into these four: agenda setting, policy design, policy implementation, and impact studies. My thesis is rather distinctive in the sense that it concerns all of these phases in an attempt to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the scheme. Thus, I will discuss the issues relevant for researching each phase of the TEE scheme in the coming sections, except for the design phase which will be discussed in detail in the next section (4.3) where I discuss the criteria which ensure quality of teacher evaluation, the TEE being an evaluation scheme.

### **4.2.3 Agenda setting**

One of the issues which has received much attention by policy research is the process of agenda setting, particularly in terms of whose interest a policy serves.



It is often assumed that the policy will serve “the greatest good for the greatest number”(C. J. Andrews, 2007, p. 164), or address public goods through alleviating “public problems that are not or cannot be addressed by private actors” (Birkland, 2007, p. 71). However, as S. J. Ball points out, “in a modern, complex, plural society...[the agenda] is often unscientific and irrational” (Ball, 1990, p. 3). The agenda can be unscientific if policy makers fail to obtain necessary information (C. J. Andrews, 2007), and can be irrational when the policy actors pursue “egoistical self-regarding” goals which serve only “their personal welfare (or that of their immediate family)” (Griggs, 2007, p. 174). M. Hill’s (2005) model of agenda setting, for instance, illustrates how the context, particularly the power distribution across the society, affects the rationality of the agenda setting, i.e., whether it serves the interests of a few individuals or a reasonably large enough group of people (See Table 2). Running the risk of sounding categorical, distribution and concentration of power in terms of agenda setting in educational policies in South Korea is reflected by either the first or the third cell of M. Hill’s model. As discussed in Chapter 2, all the educational policies are centrally decided by relevant departments of the MOE or sometimes special committees established by the President-elect, which are captured by the cells on the first column. Agendas of many policies reflect the opinions of the public as perceived by the government: the public sometimes have opportunities to express their opinions directly for instance through elections, large and small. However, agendas of the policies do not always reflect the opinions of the public, although it is difficult to define who constitutes the public. For instance, the plan to change the medium of instruction from Korean to English for all subjects for upper years of primary school was announced in 2008 by the President Lee Myung-bak's transition team, and was retracted after it met huge resistance from the public (“Transition team plans English immersion program,” 2008; “인수위 ‘몰입교육’ 논란속 후퇴 [Transition Committee retracts the disputed 'immersion education'],” 2008). As will be discussed in Chapter 6, one of the aims of the TEE scheme was set, based on a wrong assumption. H. S. Shin (2005) even claims that the agendas of educational

policies tend to be decided by political choices of the government after reviewing educational innovations of a decade in the context (p.2).

**Table 2 Possible ways of policy agenda setting (M. Hill, 2005, p. 106)**

	Power concentrated	Power fragmented
Power distributed relatively equally	1. Representative government in which a unified executive is responsive to popular will	2. Pluralist government in which popular will prevails through competition between groups
Power distributed unequally	3. Government by an unrepresentative elite, or in the grip of external influences	4. Unpredicted and chaotic government, buffeted by multiple pressures

These contextual features have bearing on understanding set agendas of a policy. That is, they raise the possibility that the agendas are irrational because they may be ill-informed, or because the agendas may not reflect the interests of the public. This possibility commands researchers as well as stakeholders of a specific policy to critically review the legitimacy of the agenda of a policy before even engaging with its success. If a policy is not rational, its success would neither be meaningful for the majority of people nor capable of addressing the public good. These observations have implications for this study which aims to evaluate the impact of the scheme. In determining the success of the scheme, one does not necessarily want to assess it according to its announced aims. An alternative criterion for assessing the scheme will be discussed in section 4.2.5.

#### **4.2.4 Policy implementation**

In investigating the policy process, the agendas and language of policy enactment research seem to have relevance to this research. Enactment research belongs to the eclectic approach which was discussed in 4.2.2, in that it looks at both the

influence of the policy documents on the actors of the policy and how the actors shape the policy in return. For example, in their articles about policy process in a special issue on theorising and researching policy realisation in schools, S. J. Ball, Maguire, Braun, and Hoskins (2011a; 2011b) contrasted two different positions teachers have in relation to a policy. That is, they discuss how teachers are constrained as subjects of a policy and their actions, talks, and even thoughts are shaped and bound by a policy (Ball et al., 2011b). At the same time, however, they document how teachers exercise their agency in a policy process by adapting and recreating the policy (Ball et al., 2011a). The reciprocal relationship between the policy and the actors is also noted by researchers on innovations referred in the previous section including Markee (1997); Waters and Vilches (2001). My data clearly mirrors this relationship, which will be reflected in discussion in Chapters 7 through 9.

#### **4.2.5 Evaluating impact**

In discussing the impact of a policy, two issues should be considered: the method of investigation, and the lens through which the impact will be evaluated. In terms of the method, McNeil and Coppola (2006) provide practical suggestions on how to conduct policy impact research. They suggest that the impact be examined at different levels; other factors and systems that influence what happens at the ground level should be examined and the investigation should be conducted outside the intended area. This research reflects their suggestions: it investigates the process of certification through contribution from different levels, that is, policy makers, teacher trainers and assessors, and teachers; it looks at influences from other educational policies and systems including the national college entrance exam; the research is open to impact in areas other than specified by the scheme. S. J. Ball (2006) provides additional dimensions to consider in discussing impact outside the intended area, i.e., “second order effects” or “changes on patterns of social access and opportunity and social justice” (p.51). This seems to have relevance to the TEE scheme. The scheme is related to teachers’ promotions;

it flags up productive English competency and marginalizes abilities such as prescriptive grammatical knowledge which have traditionally been considered as important, thus creating a new context for being a teacher.

In evaluating impact, Matland (1995) suggests that when the goals of a policy are clearly stated, the evaluation should be conducted in terms of these goals. In cases where the goals are not specified, he suggests that whether or not the policy promotes a common good should be the basis for deciding its success. However, as briefly discussed in 4.2.3, the agenda of a policy may be set in a way that is not rational or scientific and the possibility exists that the TEE scheme is one such case. Also, as discussed in 4.2.1, the same agenda can be perceived differently by different people. Therefore, even when the agenda is set, the success may also need to be decided by whether it serves the interest of both the majority and the public good, as well as the degree to which it achieves its own aims. When it is difficult to claim that any agenda is serving the majority, aiming to define the public good may be more productive despite its difficulty. For this difficult task of deciding the public good, M. Hill's (2005) discussion of accountability of public officials may be useful because, in the Korean context, teachers whom the TEE scheme is targeting are public officials. Before I introduce his discussion, I need to make it clear that here I use the term accountability in the recent and popular sense of "serv[ing] with a commitment to do the right thing" (M. Hill, 2005, p. 259).

M. Hill lists six different entities to which public officials can be held accountable, and respective types of accountability according to the entities. The types are political, hierarchical, direct democratic, legal, professional, and bureaucratic accountability. Since the last one he suggests is a combination of the others, only the first five are discussed here. Political accountability concerns accountability to the government which, therefore, for the TEE scheme, means the Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education; hierarchical accountability is to the head of an organization, therefore, the head teacher; direct democratic accountability is to

the public, therefore, the citizens; legal accountability is to the law, and in the case of the TEE scheme, it will be to the educational and constitutional laws; and professional accountability refers to the professional relationship, therefore, to the students, but also to other teachers who, presumably, know what is best for the students.

He also points out the possibility that some policies' officials may be accountable to multiple entities and, in that case, the professionals may need to use their discretion in deciding to whom they exhibit most accountability. Drawing from M. Hill's argument, the legitimacy of the goals of any policy should be critically examined by identifying who the people targeted by a specific policy are accountable to in terms of their service. It was argued that success of the TEE scheme should be evaluated accordingly considering different accountabilities rather than simply gauging its success based on the goals identified by the policy creators.

Regarding where most accountability of teachers lies, I think McNeil & Coppola (2006) point in the right direction. They conducted a case study of the educational accountability policy in the US context. When they researched only the test results in the 10<sup>th</sup> grade, it seemed that the schools were enacting the 'No Child Left Behind policy'. However, expanding their research outside the test results, they captured the superficial compliance of schools to the 'No Child Left Behind policy'. In actual fact, schools were holding back some 9<sup>th</sup> graders who probably would not perform well in the 10<sup>th</sup> grade. This in turn resulted in an unethical result, a dramatic increase in drop-outs between the two grades. With this case they argue that an educational policy should examine the policy's accountability to its true accountees, the students. Based on the insight they have gained through this study, they suggest that researchers ask the question "[W]hat does this do to - and for - the children? Or, how does this policy affect children and children's learning?" (p.698). Reinterpreting their suggestions for this study of teachers' engagement with the policy, I will be asking whether or not and how teachers'

engagement with the TEE scheme relates to their concern about students' welfare, which will be one lens through which I will evaluate the impact of the TEE scheme in Chapter 8, in addition to whether or not the scheme is achieving its original aims as stipulated in the scheme, i.e. teacher development and change.

#### **4.2.6 Perception and impact of teacher evaluation policies**

This subsection will review studies that can directly inform my understanding and analysis of interviews with teachers on their perceptions of and experience with the TEE scheme. For each study reviewed here, I will briefly describe the context of the scheme in question, and then describe teachers' perceptions of and engagement with the scheme and the scheme's impact. It should be noted that, first, the studies reviewed here do not concern teacher evaluation conducted only in secondary schools (the context of my research) but also at primary and tertiary levels. This decision was made because there seems to be more commonality than differences among the reported experiences across the different levels. Second, only the studies which investigated evaluation schemes with articulated aims to change teachers' practices or induce professional development were reviewed, because these are the two aims of the TEE scheme which are of interest to the researcher. Finally, in the discussion the term "teachers" will be used for all levels, although in some research the term "academics" is used for tertiary level teaching staff.

Hall & Noyes (2009) investigate secondary school teachers' engagement with self-assessment as a part of the OFSTED school inspection, reporting its two-way impact. They report that teachers perceive this self-evaluation as lacking validity because the inspection team expects that learning of all students be visible within the 30 minute observation. At the same time, teachers also think the evaluation is unavoidable. The researchers argue that teachers' perception of the scheme as invalid and inevitable results in two types of engagement activities from the teachers. Superficially, they comply with the discourse of the inspection and try to produce a school that is "outstanding". However, below the surface, they are

resisting the evaluation system which they do not believe in. First, they collectively put up a show and do what they think the inspectors are looking for. Second, some of them do not fully engage with the elements they do not agree with, such as giving a grade to a peer lesson. Third, in order to create time to produce an “outstanding” school, they reduce time with students and time which used to be invested in promoting students’ learning, thus defeating the purpose of the scheme, ‘better education’. In a sense, teachers are following the letter of the law but not the spirit of the law. It will be interesting to see if the same pattern of engagement with the TEE scheme is observed, that is, superficially following the scheme, but not following its ultimate aims because these are viewed by teachers with scepticism.

Wragg, Wikeley, Wragg and Haynes (1996) also looked into the English context, and conducted a mixed-method three-phase study to investigate the teacher appraisal process in primary and secondary schools, which was instituted by the Education Act of 1986. They collected related documents from the local education authorities (Phase I), conducted a national survey (Phase II) and carried out twenty-nine case studies with appraisers, teachers, and head teachers (Phase III). According to the national survey, 69% of teachers reported personal benefits from the appraisal and 49% reported changes in practice induced by the appraisal. The positive view concerned teachers’ active use of the lesson observation as an opportunity for professional and career development, even though this was not the aim of the scheme. 27% reported no benefits and 50% reported no change in practice. The negative views reflected the shortage of time and resources, concerns about negative impact on colleagues, and increased workload which is generated by unhelpful training and administration work without actual benefits. Interestingly, they found that most teachers were positive (60%) or neutral (34%) toward lesson observation and that teachers were not affected (67%) by, or did not care about (23%), the presence of the observer in the lesson. This positive opinion which counters “the proven fact that many teachers – even the most experienced ones – dislike and even fear being observed” (Lasagabaster & Sierra,

2011) may perhaps be due to the quality of the actual implemented process, one of the findings of this research. Also, the observation at best raised the teachers' awareness of what happens in their own classrooms, but the researchers could not find much impact on teachers' practices regarding the areas of focus neither in the immediate observations nor in the follow-up observations carried out three months later. Notably, the teachers do not always act as passive evaluatees: they sometimes use the observation as an opportunity to raise issues of concern such as lack of resources. All these discussion points may be observed in relation to the TEE scheme, such as appropriation of the scheme, teachers' varied experience with the scheme, and the constraints from the context in terms of time and resources.

Duke (2009) is a small-scale survey study which investigates the impact of an institutional teacher evaluation scheme at a tertiary level institute. The survey includes one free written response item, and was responded to by 39 teachers. The results show that the teacher evaluation was performed only perfunctorily, despite specific policies that aim for its quality. Commonly, the evaluation is conducted with least investment in terms of time (30 minutes of observation, once a year), which forms the perception that the comments from the evaluators are not very useful; therefore, the teachers do not seriously consider the comments from the observation and thus do not reflect these in their subsequent teaching. This case study documents how evaluation conducted in a way that threatens validity is played along with but has no impact on practice. It may be the case that the TEE scheme does not have much impact on practice, particularly for the beginner level where teaching is evaluated purely on the basis of a single case of microteaching.

Sikes (2009) is a case study of the impact of the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) at a new (post 1992) university<sup>8</sup> in the UK. She reports fifteen teachers'

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<sup>8</sup> New universities refer to those which were former polytechnics having both



perception and experience of research and teaching under the RAE, and concludes that their response to it largely depends on their identities, that is, whether they consider themselves as ‘teachers’ or ‘researchers’, as well as on their job requirement and their biographies, i.e. phases in their careers and lives. Thus, the same scheme can be perceived by, and impact on, different people differently. She points out that the changes in the professional context such as professional priorities and demands instigated by the RAE force the identity of a researcher, and this requires investment of private time into research activities. As a result, teachers’ personal identities are threatened because their personal lives are invaded by the demands of their professional lives, and those who prioritize teaching and caring for students may experience anxieties, pressures, and feelings of inadequacy because they need to reduce time for their valued activities. This study raises questions about who will align themselves with the practice promoted by this scheme and who will be marginalized, and whether and how teachers’ identities affect their engagement with the scheme.

Kiely (2001) is an ethnographic study of the impact of student evaluation on teaching at a tertiary level using field notes of classroom observation and recordings of interviews with two English language teachers and their discussion of the evaluation results with the students. This evaluation scheme is very distinct from other schemes because it asks teachers to discuss the results with students and negotiate the points raised. He finds a mismatch between the perception of the scheme and teachers’ adoption of the points raised by the students. While the teachers say that student feedback is not that meaningful because the students do not know what is best for them, and also different students have different needs, Kiely finds through repeated lesson observations that teachers do change their instruction in a microscopic but qualitatively meaningful way. The teachers

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academic and vocational foci. These universities are contrasted with old universities which traditionally are more research oriented.

reflected students' comments in their lessons after all, although there is time lag because it involves changing their professional identities which takes time (as discussed in section 3.2). He also points out that these kinds of changes will not be captured by most program evaluation studies because the measurement tools are not sensitive to these changes. This study points out the possibility that with the TEE scheme it may take time for teachers to adopt the promoted practice, and it may impact on teachers in a way that is not specified by the scheme.

The research reviewed suggests the following with regard to this study: first, teachers may participate in certification but not change their practice in the way that is promoted; second, teachers may appropriate and use the TEE scheme for their own purposes, not particularly caring about its original purposes; third, it is important to look into the actual implementation procedure of the TEE scheme rather than believing in the description of the procedure in the official document; fourth, teachers' identities may affect their perception of the TEE scheme and its impact on them; and finally, there may be impact that is not intended by the scheme. All these points will be considered in analysing the data for this thesis.

#### **4.2.7 Section summary**

Since the TEE scheme I am investigating is part of public policy, section 4.2 looked into the literature on public policies. It presented different understanding of policies and how the term policy is used in this thesis. It also located this study within the policy research in terms of its approach to researching policy process, that is, the eclectic approach. It then discussed issues in relation to policy research for each phase of the policy cycle. Finally, I drew out implications from previous research studies which look into teachers' perceptions and engagement with evaluation schemes, to be used in understanding and analysing the data for my own research.

In the next section, I will discuss the issues to be considered in designing the policy process in the form of teacher evaluation. This will help identify possible areas of tension and improvement for the TEE scheme.

### **4.3 Teacher evaluation**

In the previous sections, I discussed literature which will inform my understanding of the TEE scheme from the broadest perspective of a government-led innovation, and then discussed the complexity of investigating its process and impact. This section will review literature on aspects that should be considered in designing and evaluating a teacher evaluation scheme, because the TEE scheme includes a large focus on teacher evaluation. Accordingly, this section will look into the following areas. Section 4.3.1 introduces the terminology used in evaluation. Section 4.3.2 briefly discusses the different purposes of teacher evaluation and section 4.3.3 reviews tools used in in-service teacher evaluation. Section 4.3.4 reviews the quality criteria for evaluation, i.e., validity, reliability, and usability, and how these criteria can be ensured in teacher evaluation. Sections 4.3.5 and 4.3.6 discuss issues related to these three criteria. Section 4.3.7 discusses the studies which investigated the impact of certification on teacher development and change. Finally, section 4.3.8 summarises discussion in the section. Examining these areas of the literature will form a sound basis for evaluating the TEE scheme, which is the aim of this thesis.

#### **4.3.1 Terminology: Measurement, evaluation, assessment and appraisal**

Measurement is a basis for any assessment or evaluation, and it involves the process of “gathering and quantifying of information,” using tools such as observation and written tests (Parker, 2007, p. 14). The use of the measurement results are described using different terms, and these are often employed without providing definitions and in many cases interchangeably. Therefore, there is a need to clarify the usage of these terms in this thesis. Nevo (1983) presents two widely accepted definition of the term evaluation in the educational context: “the process of determining to what extent the educational objectives are actually

being realized” and “the systematic investigation of the worth or merit of some object” (p.118). The former focuses on the quality of the process of educational actions and the latter on the actors or the entity these actions are associated with. The commonality between these two definitions is the act of collecting data (through measurements) and its interpretation. In some contexts, however, the term assessment is also used to denote the same concept.

These two terms, evaluation and assessment, are however usually differentiated based on different criteria. The first criterion is the measured entity. The term evaluation is used when the measured entity is a program; assessment is used for students; and, additionally, appraisal is used for teachers (Scheerens, Glas, & Thomas, 2003). The second criterion is the use of the measurement results. For instance, assessment relates to their formative use while evaluation relates to their summative use (e.g. York University, 2002), or vice versa. Finally, the most commonly used criterion is the action taken using the measurement results. The term assessment refers to the analysis of data gathered through measurement and understanding the entity’s performance, while evaluation refers to the next phase of action, making a judgment in terms of the merit or worth of the entity (Nevo, 1983; Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1992).

This thesis uses the terms in this final set of meanings and focuses on the act of evaluation because, in the Korean context, teachers’ competences and performances that are measured are always used for deciding their merit, e.g., their effectiveness, and to inform decisions on dealings with teachers. Since I have explained the terms to be used in this thesis, I will discuss ways to ensure quality of teacher evaluation in the following sections. The discussion starts with purposes and tools of teacher evaluation, which will be followed by principles for quality evaluation.

### **4.3.2 Purposes of teacher evaluation**

Evaluation is conducted at various phases of teachers' careers, during their preparation for the job, at their entry into the profession, and throughout their profession, in which case evaluation may also lead to termination of a teacher's career. During the pre-service education period it is used to determine candidates' readiness to enter the pre-service education programme, their learning during the programme, their readiness to exit the programme and to enter teaching (Soled, 1995, pp. 1-2). At the entry of the profession, a prospective teacher usually goes through some form of tests in order to gain a credential and several additional measurements to obtain employment, and the employing body uses these results as a basis for their decision regarding the candidate (Wilson, 2009, p. 11). Once in the profession, a teacher is evaluated for three major purposes, accountability, curriculum improvement, and self-development (Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1992, p. 23). As will be discussed in detail in Chapter 6, the TEE has all three of these concerns as an in-service evaluation scheme. The next section discusses the tools used in in-service teacher evaluation in general, with a specific focus on the tools used in the scheme.

### **4.3.3 Tools of teacher evaluation**

Two manuals provide both practical information on tools for teacher evaluation and in-depth discussion of the issues related. Stronge and Tucker (2003) provide a simple but useful overview of the tools that are often used for in-service teacher evaluation and provide practical tips on designing and executing these tools; Millan and Darling-Hammond (1990) present a more comprehensive view of the tools and discuss issues related to using the gathered information in decision making. The tools discussed include observations, client surveys, student learning outcomes, portfolios, and self-assessment. Written tests, which are also adopted to evaluate in-service teachers in some contexts, including Mexico, the US (OECD, ca. 2004), and in Korea as part of the TEE scheme, are only dealt with as a part of a discussion on utilizing the conventional tests for licensure in Millan and Darling-

Hammond (1990) in the chapter contributed by Madaus & Mehrens (1990). In fact, written tests are not discussed in the literature on in-service teacher evaluation for the obvious reason of their limited utility in measuring teachers' expertise. Of the various tools discussed, two tools, written tests and teaching observation, will be discussed next because they are the main tools used for the TEE scheme. Each tool will be discussed in terms of their content or procedure and then in terms of related issues.

**Written Test.** In section 3.1.5 the components of teacher knowledge as delineated by Shulman and his associates were discussed. Of those, Grossman's (1990) categorisation is often used in the South Korean context, which divides teacher knowledge into knowledge of subject matter, knowledge of learning and teaching, knowledge of context (which includes knowledge of learners) and PCK. Jin et al. (2009) review seven tests that are commercially developed for licensure, including Teaching Knowledge Test developed by Cambridge ESOL and Praxis I and II for English for Speakers of Other Languages which were developed by Educational Testing Service (ETS)<sup>9</sup>. To analyse the data presented in their report, most of the tests deal with only the first two areas, plus an additional area that was not identified by Grossman (1990), i.e., teacher development. The fact that knowledge of context is not measured is understandable because these tests are made to serve needs of candidates from various contexts. Omission of PCK is possibly due to the difficulty of measuring it as will be discussed in section 4.3.5.

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<sup>9</sup> Praxis series are tests produced and executed by the ETS and used as part of the certification process of primary and secondary teachers, which is required by many US states and professional licensing organizations. Praxis-II has 126 subject matter tests, one of which is Praxis II-ESOL. It is a written test with multiple-choice items which measure the candidates' linguistic and pedagogical knowledge in the ESOL context.

The strength of a written test is cost-efficiency. However, written tests, particularly those which consist only of multiple choice items as is often the case, have their limitations. First, teachers' performance in the written test does not effectively predict their performance in teaching (Madaus & Mehrens, 1990). Second, those tests seem to measure declarative knowledge in most cases, and even those tests that claim to measure procedural knowledge seem to measure very limited aspects of it (see section 4.3.5 for detailed discussion of this issue). The degree to which these limitations are observed in the written test of the TEE scheme will be discussed in Chapter 6.

**Observation.** Observation is an evaluation tool for which the primary data source is the record of what occurs in an instructional setting. There are different categorizations of observation (See Stodolsky (1990) for references for different categorizations and tools of classroom observation), and Cangelosi (1991)'s categorization is most comprehensive because it includes all types of observation that happen in the school context, with or without intention. Cangelosi categorizes observation into the following five types: ecological, ethnographic, structured, in-class rating, and informal observation. Ecological observation is the least organized, where the observer records everything without any conscious selection of what is to be recorded. In ethnographic observation the observer develops the focus during the observation, while in structured and in-class rating observation the observer focuses on pre-decided aspects of the lessons. In structured observation the observer simply records what happens in terms of the preset categories, and for in-class rating observation, the observers record their evaluation on the pre-determined items during the lesson. Informal observation happens when the original purpose of the visit is not to observe the lessons but the visitor notes a feature which results in some evaluation. The observation for the TEE scheme is in-class rating observation and, for this type of observation, Cangelosi (ibid.) emphasizes that clarifying the observers' assumptions that were activated in deciding the rating is necessary to keep the observer's personal preferences from prejudicing the evaluation results.

When managed well, lesson observation has a number of advantages, including provision of opportunities to see how students engage in the instruction, and an opportunity for both the observed and the observer to professionally develop (Fullerton, 2006). However, it also has limitations. First, the evaluation is conducted only on what can be observable, and many aspects of classroom interactions including cognitive activities are not observable (J. C. Richards & Farrell, 2011; Stodolsky, 1990); an assessor can never observe all that is simultaneously happening at a moment, and what is observed is influenced by the evaluation schedule (Malderez & Bodóczy, 1999). Second, it is difficult to ensure validity of observation as an evaluation tool because what happens in one particular class can be influenced by many things other than the teacher's expertise, for example, the students' moods on the day. Third, interpretation of what is observed is subject to the assessors' perspectives on effective teaching and their assumptions about classroom procedure and culture (ibid.). Therefore, to ensure the quality of evaluation through this tool, proper training of the evaluator and developing an appropriate procedure with an appropriate observation schedule is necessary (Cangelosi, 1991, p. 47). Millan and Darling-Hammond (1990) make succinct but insightful comments on one type of observation, that is, microteaching, which is used for the TEE scheme in evaluating beginner level candidates. Observing performance in microteaching is meant to provide "comparable conditions across teachers" but has poor validity because it does not show what the teachers usually do (p.185).

This section has briefly reviewed teacher evaluation purposes and tools and considered the two major tools for the TEE scheme. The next section will consider the general quality criteria that apply to any measurement tools and that need to be ensured throughout the process of an evaluation.

#### **4.3.4 Quality criteria and terminology**

Different researchers or practitioners suggest different criteria to ensure the quality of an evaluation scheme, and Dwyer (1995) provides a good summary of



those sets. Despite the multiplicity of the terms that constitute such criteria, the commonly mentioned elements seem to use the most familiar terms: validity, reliability, and usability. These three main criteria will be discussed in turn, acknowledging that there are far more criteria to be considered to ensure the quality of evaluation, including propriety which ensures the ethics and legality of the evaluation, and utility which concerns usefulness for evaluatees and qualification of the evaluators (Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation, 2013).

The first criterion to ensure the quality of an evaluation is validity. There is a variety of validation criteria for performance evaluation (Dwyer, 1995), but, since the following four are the most widely used, they will be briefly introduced in turn, drawing on Gronlund (1981): construct validity, criterion-related validity, content validity, and technical validity. Construct validity concerns the trait that will explain the performance at an evaluation, such as teachers' knowledge of learners. Criterion-related validity concerns prediction of the future or current performance through the evaluation. Content validity concerns the representativeness of the sampling of the target knowledge or skill. Technical validity concerns the consequences of the evaluation. The first three address the operationalisation of what is measured. That is, they concern whether what is being measured is what the evaluation scheme purports to measure. The last concerns the wash back effect of the evaluation. All of these form relevant criteria which serve the aim of this thesis, i.e., critical evaluation of the TEE scheme. Construct validity is related to the conceptualization of ELT expertise, whether it measures what it should be measuring; concurrent validity examines whether the teachers who receive good evaluation currently teach in the way promoted by the scheme and whether they will continue to do so in the future; content validity concerns whether all important elements of ELT expertise that have been identified are being measured in the TEE schemes; and technical validity is related to the impact of the evaluation schemes on teachers and teaching.

Another aspect of validity which is not often discussed but has relevance to this research is fairness. Linn, Baker, and Dunbar (1991) list several ways to ensure this aspect of validity against the background of using students' performance in evaluating teachers. The two major themes across the suggestions are: 1) what is not the result of teachers' abilities such as performance gaps resulting from students' different backgrounds should not be reflected in evaluating teachers; 2) perceptions and biases of the assessors should not affect the evaluation outcome. To apply the suggestions to the context of this research to ensure validity, 1) measures should be taken to prevent differences in teachers' performance that results from something external to teachers' abilities such as access to information about the assessment; and 2) assessors' personal preferences about how to teach should not affect the assessment outcome.

The second criterion that ensures the quality of evaluation, reliability, concerns "the consistency of measurement" (Gronlund, 1981, p. 93), of which there are four major types: inter-rater reliability which concerns the consistency between different evaluators; intra-rater reliability which examines the consistency within the evaluator him- or herself; inter-method reliability which considers consistency among the different tools in a single evaluation; and test-retest reliability which ensures consistency across different measurements using the same evaluation methods. In other words, a good teacher evaluation scheme should produce the same results about a teacher, regardless of the evaluator and other evaluatees, across different components of evaluation and at different times. Reliability is important because the validity of evaluation may be threatened if the measurement is subject to a change of factors other than the performance of the teacher. This suggests that this research should examine reliability as well.

The last criterion for judging the quality of an evaluation is usability or feasibility, which concerns its cost and ease of use, from the viewpoint of both evaluators and evaluatees and for each phase of evaluation such as administration, scoring, interpretation and application of results. Theoretically, an otherwise ideal

evaluation would not be able to fulfil its original aims if the cost is huge or if the procedure is too complex. Therefore, this thesis also needs to inquire into usability. Stronge and Tucker (2003) suggest that such inquiry into cost includes the affective side as well as the economic side. Teachers' affective response may play an important role in the success of the TEE scheme, especially since it aims to change teaching practice and because there is a close link between teacher cognition and teacher affect as discussed in Section 3.1.5. The negative effect of neglect of this affective cost in terms of the TEE scheme will be discussed in Chapter 8.

One thing to note is that all three of these criteria should be effectively realized for an evaluation scheme to function properly. For instance, a scheme with good reliability but without validity is meaningless. An example of this would be the use of value-added gain scores (VAGS) of students from high-stake exams (e.g. national achievement tests) as a sole basis for teacher evaluation. VAGS are calculated through comparing adjusted scores at two comparison points. The scores are adjusted for the factors chosen by a model, such as the school's relative performance compared with the national average and socio-economic background of individual students (See Gorard (2010) for an example). If individual students perform better than the estimated scores, the school, and thus, the teachers who instructed the students are evaluated as effective. The use of VAGS at teacher or school evaluation is very controversial at present. Those researchers in favour of using it legitimize it by saying that it provides the very information that should be considered in evaluating teachers, and that the method is ever developing and when it is used with other sources of information, the current limitation of the measure is ignorable compared with the benefits that it provides (Muijs, Kelly, Sammons, & Reynolds, 2011). Those who are against are doubtful about its validity as a measure of teachers' expertise for many reasons. Any test can only measure part of student learning and it is very difficult to trace the contribution of individual teachers to their learning (Chester & Zelman, 2009); the scores are fraught with validity problems such as the false assumptions of

teachers' random assignments to students and of the same effect of a teacher on different students, not to mention the fact that such scores are based on students' performances at the high-stake exams which, in themselves, are questioned for their validity (Shulman, 2009); and there is a wash back effect of leading teachers to focus on near-transfer or teach to test, rather than helping students to develop skills and knowledge to be used outside schools (Larsen-Freeman, 2012). In some contexts, however, they are already used in teacher evaluation, such as the U.S. state of Ohio (Chester & Zelman, 2009) and South Korea as discussed in Section 2.4.

The degree to which each of these criteria are met by the TEE scheme will be discussed in Chapters 6 and 7, and the evaluation of the scheme based on the results will be presented in Chapter 9. In the following subsections, studies on teacher evaluation which address the concerns related to validity, reliability and usability will be reviewed, which will help inform the analysis of the procedure of teacher evaluation through the TEE scheme.

#### **4.3.5 Validity issues in teacher evaluation**

There is an issue of alignment between the view of teaching supported in the public discourse, such as teacher education, and what is operationalised in teacher evaluation. Stein & Matsumura (2009) point out that in many contexts these two do not match. For instance, they find that while the role of the teacher is often conceived of as a facilitator of cooperative construction of knowledge, the operationalisation of teacher expertise in most teacher evaluation schemes is that of knowledge transmitter. The existence of such different pulls, particularly when they are in tension, is reported to result in a sacrifice of student learning (McNeil & Coppola, 2006). Along the same line, since what is assumed may not be clear to all teachers, it is considered a good practice to spell out the expectations of the evaluation (Stronge & Tucker, 2003). This concern suggests that the present research needs to compare the conceptualization of ELT expertise in the public discourse and expertise as operationalised in the TEE scheme, and to investigate

whether the operationalisation is explicitly explained. This issue will be considered in discussion of teachers' experience of the scheme in Chapter 7, the impact of the scheme in Chapter 8, and implications of the findings in Chapter 9.

The next type, criterion-related validity, can be ensured by factoring in the context and background of individual teachers through providing the teachers with opportunities to discuss their practice during observed lessons (Ladson-Billings, 2009). Such discussion may impart to the evaluator an understanding of some practices which may be viewed as problematic. The evaluator may find that a particular practice in question has resulted from different contextual limitations rather than from the teacher's lack of relevant knowledge (Borg, 2009, p. 107); thus, it is possible for the teacher to perform better when the situation allows. Such conferences may be particularly crucial for cases where teachers are practicing in an underprivileged context or teaching in a creative way which does not necessarily 'fit into the box.'

Regarding the third type of validity, content validity, the problem is that no agreement exists as to what constitutes teacher expertise or what should be measured to reach a judgment on teacher quality (Katz & Snow, 2009; Wilson, 2009), partly due to the situatedness of expertise as discussed in section 3.1.3. The other thing to note is that many teacher evaluations omit what is difficult to measure, such as tacit craft knowledge and ethical judgment, and measure only what is easy, only the observable practice (Katz & Snow, 2009).

Measures to incorporate these often neglected elements in teacher evaluation are being investigated. For instance, for teacher knowledge, measures to incorporate PCK, which is found to be a very good proxy for teaching expertise, have been researched (H. C. Hill, Rowan, & Ball, 2005) and some teacher evaluation schemes already measure PCK (Wilson, 2009). PCK specific to teaching English is also already used in current teaching certificate tests such as Praxis II-ESOL. Despite some limitations of such tests for example that the items in the test mostly measure the teachers' ability to recognize the language-related problems

of learners rather than the ability to solve them<sup>10</sup>, it seems to be a good replacement for items that measure declarative knowledge, which has very limited relevance to ability to teach. The degree to which the TEE scheme measures this neglected area, that is, PCK and teachers' judgement will be discussed in Chapter 6.

Content validity may be related to teachers' affective experience of the evaluation. As discussed in 3.1.3, the unobservable is relatively ignored or even penalized due to the difficulty of its measurement. Additionally, if a teacher evaluation marginalises abilities which have been traditionally valued, and if teachers are required to develop new knowledge and abilities which cannot be achieved overnight, it may incur some teachers' frustration and even negatively impact on their self-concepts or identity. The impact of the evaluation on teachers' affect as well as self-concepts and identity is observable in the previous studies discussed in Section 4.3.7. The impact of the TEE scheme on this aspect will be discussed in Chapter 8.

#### **4.3.6 Reliability and usability issues in teacher evaluation**

The literature on teacher evaluation discusses the following two characteristics of evaluation practice that ensure reliability: 1) communication between the user of the evaluation scheme and teachers, and 2) commitment to or investment into evaluation (Iwanicki & Rindone, 1995; Poster & Poster, 1993; Stronge & Tucker, 2003). To examine the first characteristic, the objectives, use, and procedures of an evaluation should be clearly communicated to the teacher. This is particularly important for the observation which can be very subjective. Gebhard (1999), noting the selectivity of observers' observations, suggests negotiating the areas to

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<sup>10</sup> For a sample question from Praxis II-ESOL (Educational Testing Service, 2012) and suggested revision of it in order to capture PCK's problem solving aspect, see Appendix 3.

be looked at with the teacher before the observation occurs, and holding judgment until after discussing the observed class with the teacher. Also, he recommends an open communication of the preliminary evaluation results which allows for the teacher to negotiate the results of the evaluation. How the issues raised by Gebhard (1999) feature in the realized TEE scheme will be discussed in Chapters 6 and 7.

A second characteristic of a reliable evaluation, investment, is recommended for several areas (Stronge & Tucker, 2003). They include evaluator training and regular review of the evaluation scheme. They also include building a rigorous scheme which is developed in detail, such as rubrics for evaluation, not just for standards, in order to ensure reliability (McCloskey, Thornton, & Touba, 2007). In cases where an evaluation involves rating the teaching, a “behaviourally anchored” rating is recommended, that is, providing a description of specific behaviours for each rating, rather than merely giving the range of rating with numbers or descriptors such as *satisfactory* and *outstanding* (McGreal, 1990). While it is true that simply giving the range of rating is not conducive to reliability, deciding teachers’ ratings based on observable behaviours is problematic because teaching involves far more than what is observable and the performance in class does not necessarily reflect what teachers believe in, as discussed in 3.1.2. On the other hand, high-inference evaluation, which allows for more flexibility and thus measures what is not only directly observable but also inferable, requires the subjective judgment of the evaluators and therefore, it is recommended, should be backed up by low-inference evaluation (Grift van de, 2010) and be evidence-grounded (Stronge & Tucker, 2003).

The last criterion for good evaluation, usability, is mostly discussed in terms of the ease of execution, its cost-efficiency and the allocation of sufficient resources (Stronge & Tucker, 2003). Additional factors that affect the usability of an evaluation scheme include minimal disruption of education, political viability based on consensus among the stakeholders (Guskey, 2000) and ease of

interpretation of the results (Gronlund, 1981). The usability contributes to teacher development through evaluation. It also limits use of research findings discussed on measures to ensure quality teacher evaluation in the previous and present sections. Therefore, while issues will be raised regarding different features of the TEE scheme based on the literature discussed, the researcher does not consider that it is possible to incorporate all those suggestions in a single scheme.

In the final section, I will discuss previous research studies which will inform the analysis and interpretation of my data pertaining to the impact of the TEE scheme.

#### **4.3.7 The impact of certification on teacher development and change**

Most of the studies on the impact of certification focus on the relationship between obtainment of certification and student achievement at standardised tests (e.g., Kane, Rockoff, & Staiger, 2008; Zuelke, 2008). In her research synthesis, Goe (2007) reports that the relationship between these two is inconclusive, and attributes this result to differences across different certifications investigated. She also attributes the inconclusiveness in terms of the effect of teachers' certification on students' performance to variance in certification procedures: even for the same certificate, individual teachers choose different modules and the level of investment into and learning from the certification differ across individuals. I would like to add the fact that these studies used standardised testing which did not reflect the local teaching and learning process, unless the teachers were teaching to the tests.

There are some studies which investigate the impact of the certification on daily pedagogic practice, either observed or as accounted by teachers, which have more relevance to this research. (Studies which investigate the impact of teacher evaluation in general as a part of the policy of an institute or a nation were discussed in section 4.2.5). G. Connelly and McMahon (2007) is a survey study of the impact of a voluntary certification called the Chartered Teacher in Scotland which aims to recognise expertise in teaching and to promote professional



development of teachers who are not interested in managerial roles. Teachers report the benefit of the programme as providing opportunities to learn about new ideas and research studies and improving their confidence in general. The authors do not clarify the content or nature of changes in pedagogical practices in classroom, although they report that the participants “communicated a strong sense that...their classroom practice [is] undergoing development and change” (p.99). Most of the participants report their positive view of the certification, which seems partially due to the considerable long-term financial rewards the certification induces.

Coskie and Place (2008) conducted a two-year long qualitative impact study of a voluntary certification provided by The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) in the US. They conducted multiple case studies with eight teachers, three of whom discontinued the study in the second year. The focus was on changes in participant teachers’ teaching practices of literacy. They collected the portfolios that teachers submitted, which included samples of students’ literacy work, and conducted interviews about their teaching experiences and literacy practices using the portfolios. The research method seems very rigorous for an impact study, because the researchers made lists of what the teachers claimed to have learned through the certification process and compared them with teachers’ teaching practice in the observed lessons during the second year, and their pedagogical decisions during the observed lessons. They report that the certification process made the teachers more reflective about their teaching, or at least gave teachers some frameworks against which they tried to be critical of their practice. In terms of practices, the personal constraints, such as familial obligations and contextual constraints including the level of students the teachers were entrusted with, the support from the school and the degree to which they could influence the curriculum in their school, affected the application of what they have learned. It is notable that the teachers reported the conflicts between the requirement from the two communities of practice, that is, that of the National Board and their school communities, which has relevance to the TEE

scheme. Hakel, Koenig, and Elliott (2008) report another long-term study of the impact of the NBPTS certification, which also confirms practice change for those who stayed with the study and were certified, although the area was limited to practices with formative assessment. However, they report the issue of low validity for the findings due to the high attrition rate (73%) of the participants.

Enlightening as they are, all these studies concern voluntary certification schemes and not mandated certification schemes such as the TEE scheme. Ingvarson (1998) is an exception to this because he pays attention to the differences between the government-led teacher development system called Rewards Payments for Great Teachers (RPGT), which tries to reinforce the policy agenda about teaching, and the standard-based voluntary system developed within the professional bodies which focuses on improving the quality of teaching. However, his study only investigates the differences in terms of the documents and is not based on the empirical data. It would be worthwhile to trace his study once the Australian government has instituted the certification scheme in 2013 as was planned in relation to the RPGT initiative. Therefore, there is a research gap on the impact of the imposed certification scheme on teacher practices and on any other areas for that matter, which I aim to fill through this study.

#### **4.3.8 Section summary**

In Section 4.3, the terminology used in discussing teacher evaluation was introduced, its general purposes and tools were discussed, and the quality criteria for teacher evaluation and how they can be ensured were explored. Finally, the studies which investigated the impact of certification have been reviewed, and the research gap on the impact of a government-initiated certification on teachers and their practices was identified.

#### **4.4 Chapter summary and research questions**

This chapter explored the literature which is likely to provide insights into and understanding of the process and impact of the TEE certification as well as its

critical evaluation. Section 4.1 reviewed success factors of an innovation and aspects to consider in evaluating innovations. Discussion in section 4.2 shows the very nature of policy implementation as a creative process and thus the policy documents do not tell much of what will happen. This discussion in turn points out the need to evaluate the scheme as realised. It highlights the complexity of deciding impact of a policy and evaluating the outcome, and the possibility that there will be unplanned impact. It also introduces previous studies that investigated the impact of teacher evaluation schemes which were considered as a policy of an institute or a nation. Finally, section 4.3 reviewed issues related to the use of the tools employed for the TEE scheme, and the criteria which will be used in evaluating the TEE scheme such as validity and reliability, and the ways for a scheme to meet these criteria. It also reviewed some empirical studies on the impact of certification on teachers and their teaching which will form the basis for my evaluation of the TEE scheme. In sum, the discussion raises the need to investigate the realised process of the certification scheme rather than investigating the scheme merely in design in order to understand it fully, because the scheme will also go through a creative process by the actors in the context. The chapter also discussed different factors that may contribute to the impact of the scheme, that is, the features which make any innovation and teacher evaluation scheme successful, adding to the factors that were discussed in Chapter 3 such as teacher cognition, identity, and context.

Chapter 3 and this chapter together identify a research gap in the professional development of in-service teachers for whom English is not the first language, who work at state secondary schools, and who experience a government-led innovation in the form of certification. The general research questions that will guide me to fill this research gap are as follows:

1. What impact does a teacher certification scheme such as the TEE in South Korea have on English as a second language teachers, their beliefs, and their practices?

2. What factors influence the effectiveness of such a scheme?
3. How could the scheme be improved at the levels of design and implementation?

In order to answer these questions, I am going to evaluate the TEE scheme as a whole on three levels: the scheme as planned; the scheme as implemented and experienced; and the impacts of the scheme. This three-level evaluation will form the basis on which the data chapters of this thesis are organised. Chapter 6 discusses the TEE scheme as a plan in the form of a set of policy documents and evaluates these against what the literature tells about successful curricular innovation, quality teacher evaluation and effective teacher development. Chapter 7 discusses the scheme as realised and similarly evaluates against effectiveness criteria in the same literature. Chapter 8 discusses the impact of the scheme on teachers and their teaching as narrated by teachers and inferred from my observation of the certification procedure. Finally Chapter 9 identifies factors that affect the effectiveness of the scheme, and discusses the implications of the findings for curricular innovation and certification of teachers. In this way, the study follows a policy cycle, its agenda-setting and design, its implementation, its impact, and feedback on this scheme which completes the cycle and potentially feeds into setting a new policy agenda (Jann & Wegrich, 2007).

In the next chapter I will discuss the methodology which will be used to explore the questions above, including the relevant issues of research approach, tools and procedure, and issues that were considered in order to improve the validity and rigour of the investigation.

## Chapter 5      Research Design and Methodology

### 5.0 Introduction

This study aims to develop a better understanding of the process and impact of a teacher certification called the Teaching English in English (TEE) scheme, which was instituted as part of a government initiative to change the focus of English language education from learning about English to using it. This methodology chapter discusses theoretical and practical concerns associated with this research. It starts with a discussion of the assumptions about the view of the world and of knowledge construction informing this research, followed by a description of the actual process and issues considered in researching the complex process of teacher development and change through a language teacher certification.

### 5.1 Assumptions about researching and my own position as a researcher

It is important for researchers to explicitly discuss their assumptions about the world and about knowledge because these guide researchers throughout their undertaking of the research (Creswell, 2009), including research design (e.g., quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-methods)<sup>11</sup>, strategies of inquiry (e.g., narrative inquiry, ethnography, and case study) and research procedure (e.g., setting research questions, data collection and analysis, interpretation, and validation). It is also important to discuss these because some research procedures are more compatible with specific views of the world and of knowledge (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011), although some suggest that they can be

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<sup>11</sup> Use of terms in describing methodology is somewhat incoherent. To illustrate, research design is denoted using other terms including research strategy (Bryman, 2008), research method (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011), and research paradigm (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011).

separated from the research paradigms from which they originate (Gorard & Taylor, 2004).

Different researchers list a different number of views of the world and of knowledge, while acknowledging the arbitrariness of dividing their continuum (Creswell, 2009; Croker, 2009; Gorard & Taylor, 2004; Linn, 1986; Mertens, 1998). Most frequently mentioned views of knowledge<sup>12</sup> are post-positivism, constructivism, and critical realism. Post-positivism has developed as a response to positivism. The assumptions of the positivism include that “only phenomena and hence knowledge confirmed by the senses can genuinely be warranted as knowledge” and those which cannot be confirmed by the senses do not belong to the domains of scientific investigation (Bryman, 2008, p. 13). Therefore it is understandable that social scientists find positivism rather limiting to capture the issues in which they are interested, as pointed out by Croker (2009, p. 6). Post-positivism settles for tentative knowledge or hypotheses which can be generalized to any context and assumed as true until a better explanation is supported by the evidence, in contrast to positivism which considers that obtaining the absolute knowledge about a phenomenon through research is possible (Linn, 1986). Post-positivism, however, shares the world view with positivism in that it believes in the existence of the absolute social reality which is separate from its descriptions.

Constructivism, or interpretivism, is developed from hermeneutics, or the study of interpretation (Croker, 2009). It considers that there is no absolute knowledge because knowledge is constructed by the participants (Flick, 2004). In this view, individuals act on personal meanings and interpretations that they attribute to

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<sup>12</sup> Different researchers construe the same concept as different aspects of methodology. For instance, realism is construed as a world view or ontological perspective by Denzin and Lincoln (2011), as a perspective on epistemology or knowledge construction by Bryman (2008), and as a perspective concerning methodology in addition to ontology by Miles and Huberman (1994).

their own and others' actions (Bryman, 2008; Flick, von Kardorff, & Steinke, 2004); therefore, there exist "multiple realities" as perceived differently across individuals (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011, p. 13).

Critical realism acknowledges the relativity of people's understanding of the world; however, it considers that it is possible to gain access to an absolute reality, or mechanisms, processes, and structures at a higher level which govern people's experiences, irrespective of people's differing perceptions (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Thus, critical realism shares the view of the world with post-positivism and the view of knowledge construction with constructivism.

My research and my view of the research process reflect the interest and influence of constructivism. It seeks to understand participants' perceptions and experience of the Teaching English in English (TEE) scheme, as shaped by their understanding and meanings. In addition, conducting the research and production of this report is influenced by my own understanding and meanings. Bluntly speaking, I chose the topic of the TEE scheme problematising the process of certification, chose to be informed by literature which I found to be relevant, collected data I saw as useful to understanding the phenomenon under investigation, and drew conclusions against my own understanding of the world. Additionally, the majority of studies and theories that I drew on to inform my own research as reviewed in the previous two chapters reflect a constructivist view, that is, they are interested in social realities as understood by participants and constructed by their own meanings and relevance, or at the very least they acknowledge the roles of participants' views and experiences, whether the topics be innovation, teacher expertise and development, evaluation or policy process. Finally, I expect readers will reconstruct the process and impact of the TEE scheme and decide the rigour of this research based on their own understanding of the world and of research activities.

Based on this understanding, the suitable design for this study seems to be that of qualitative research. Qualitative research aims to understand the meaning which participants of a phenomenon attach to their experiences; it views the researcher as a primary research instrument. Strategies of inquiry<sup>13</sup> that are commonly used for qualitative research include narrative inquiry, ethnography, phenomenology, grounded theory, and case study (Creswell, 2013; Croker, 2009); Merriam (2009) adds another which she calls basic qualitative research. Creswell (2013) and Merriam (2009) differentiate these strategies in terms of the focus of the researcher's interest, research aims, research procedure, and writing-up. Following here is a brief introduction to the features of these strategies. According to Merriam (*ibid.*), basic qualitative research is a generic form of interpretive qualitative research, which aims to understand how participants make sense of their experiences. Findings are presented in the form of recurring patterns or themes which are drawn from the data. This is the most common form of qualitative studies, and the other strategies are used when a particular focus or dimension needs to be added to the research. Narrative inquiry focuses on experience of a single individual or a small number of individuals within a certain place or situation and often participants' self-concepts are one of its core interests. It uses participants' life stories as data. Phenomenology investigates shared experience of a concept or a phenomenon (e.g., being a carer or a good supervisory meeting) and aims to distil the essence of the experience in terms of its distinctive nature or structure. Grounded theory purports to generate a substantive theory that explains a phenomenon, an action, or an interaction, rather than stopping at their description and explanation, following more or less agreed upon procedures of researching. Ethnography studies the culture, or patterns in mental and social activities of a group (e.g., their beliefs and ways of

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<sup>13</sup> There are multiple other terms to refer to "strategies of inquiry" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011), including "approaches" (Creswell, 2013; Heigham & Croker, 2009) and "styles" (Cohen et al., 2011).



life), which involves extensive field work. Case study aims to provide in-depth understanding of a specific case, particularly when the case evolves in time, and when the phenomenon under investigation interacts with the context (Flyvbjerg, 2011). It differs from other strategies because what differentiates it from others is not methodological concerns but, rather, the object of research (further relevant discussion in the next section).

For this research, which aims to investigate the phenomenon of teacher evaluation as experienced and perceived by the stakeholders and which does not aim to focus on a particular aspect of participants' experience as specified by other strategies, the strategy of basic qualitative research seems most relevant. In addition, because it aims to gain an in-depth understanding of teacher evaluation schemes which unfold over time in the specific context which was delineated in Chapter 2, a case study strategy will also be adopted. The next section further discusses the suitability of case study for this research, as well as criteria to ensure its quality.

## **5.2 Qualitative case study**

Case study embraces various philosophical persuasions, from relatively conservative positivism to constructivism, but is most closely linked with the constructivist approach (Duff, 2008), which is taken in this study. Case study can mean the process of investigation and the reports from the investigation (ibid.), and in this thesis, it is used in the former sense. In a similar note as Flyvbjerg's (2011) suggestion quoted in the previous section, Yin (2009) recommends case study when the researcher aims to investigate "a contemporary phenomenon," especially when "the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (p.18). Cohen et al. (2011) say that case study effectively captures "participants' lived experiences of, thoughts about and feelings for, a situation" (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 290). These additional strengths of case study identified by these researchers suit this research. First, it investigates the TEE certification which is currently happening in the context. Second, the TEE scheme constitutes

both the phenomenon under investigation and a part of the context. To illustrate, this scheme is an extension of a two decade old policy on promotion of communicative teaching which forms part of the context in which this scheme takes place. Finally, this research focuses on teachers' experience and perceptions of the certification procedure, because these affect the impact of the scheme on teachers' pedagogical practice as argued in the previous two chapters.

### **5.2.1 Choice of cases and participants**

This research is designed as a single-case study (Stake, 2005). In conducting a case study the first step is to define the case. Most introductory literature on the subject points out that a case should be a "bounded system," such as an institution or a person (Stake, 2000). The process of selecting cases was through funnelling (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007), or gradual focusing (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The phenomenon I was interested in was 'evaluation of English language teachers and its impact on teachers and their teaching'. I started the data collection with a view to investigate all four teacher evaluation schemes that apply to English teachers, the Teacher Promotion Scheme, Performance Pay, the Teacher Development Appraisal scheme, and the TEE scheme (for details of each see section 2.4). However, at a later stage of data collection, I narrowed the focus onto the TEE scheme. First, because of the particularity of this scheme, being semi-voluntary, it best revealed why and how teachers engage with the scheme; second, this is a scheme that applies specifically to English teachers, and has a closer link with the construct that I wanted to see being measured and impacted, that is, English language teaching expertise. The TEE scheme has two versions, one for primary school teachers and the other for secondary school teachers. It was decided that choosing a case in a context which is familiar to the researcher would prove more effective, in terms of understanding and analysing the data as well as data collection, and thus the certification for secondary school teachers was chosen as the case.

I chose as participants different actors who are related to the TEE scheme, investigating the procedure of the certification from different perspectives. They include policy makers, teacher trainers, assessors of teachers, and teachers. Investigating different actors who contributed to shaping the scheme at different stages will impart better understanding of how and why the evaluation process evolves as it does (McNeil & Coppola, 2006). Second, presenting the stories of the certification from different points of view better enables in-depth understanding of the phenomena (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011).

The process of selecting teacher participants reflects two concerns: practicality and research design. In terms of practicality, before I started data collection, I thought I needed to consider so many different ‘factors’ in choosing the teacher participants such as the socio-economic status of the school context, private and public schools, school levels (i.e., senior and junior high), teachers’ years of experience, gender and position, based on my previous discussion with teachers about their views of teacher evaluation as well as on the literature which identifies these differences as possible sources of different perceptions of, and reactions to, teacher evaluation. However, considering the limited time and resources, it was impossible to reflect all of these differences in participant selection. Therefore, I decided to focus on those which emerge as important to my own participants.

In line with the research design of qualitative research, I adopted the approach of *analytical induction* (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Bryman, 2008). Bryman (ibid.) explains analytical induction as an approach to data collection and analysis, which features any qualitative research. It refers to the process for a researcher to reach explanations of phenomena through collecting data “until no cases that are inconsistent with a hypothetical explanation (deviant or negative cases) of a phenomenon are found” (p. 539). In this approach, data collection and analysis is an iterative process, that is, the former and the latter repeatedly inform each other. It should be noted that I was considering multiple themes concurrently, and

analytical induction for these differing themes was at differing stages at any certain point of data collection, with the process sometimes being interrupted and resumed later.

To illustrate the process, because the first participant teacher, Jack, emphasised the low socio-economic context of the school, I chose as my second participant Maria who works in the Gangnam area which is perceived as well-off, as a contrastive situation to the one in which Jack works. Maria, over the phone call which I made to recruit her, suggested the age of the participants and the types of schools, private and public, as possible influences on teachers' understanding of teaching (see the first entry of the diary in Appendix 5 which discusses this phone call). Therefore, I decided to add two young teachers, Emily and Ginny. Interviews with these teachers and observation of their lessons seemed to confirm the hypothesis that the context affects teachers' pedagogic practice, but not the age of teachers. Throughout the interview, Emily confined the applicability of her observations and views to the junior high school context. Therefore, I decided to add participants from senior high schools, the first four teachers having been junior high school teachers. I was able to recruit three teachers who work at the same senior high school as my participants, Irving, Anny, and Janet, although Janet only participated in one interview. Irving and Anny who work at the same school differed in their use of medium of instruction, one feature of the pedagogic practice promoted by the TEE scheme, which did not support the possibility that either school level or socio-economic context of the school decides adoption of a particular teaching practice. I suspended further pursuit of influences on pedagogic practice. Due to refined focus on the TEE certification, I added two participants who were going through the certification at different levels, and started to compare their views of the certification procedure. In this way, I added my participants through purposeful sampling (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007, p.73), following the lead of data in answering one of my initial questions of what makes teachers' perceptions and experiences with evaluation differ as well as what affects the impact of the scheme on their practices. I ended up interviewing one

policy maker, two teacher trainers, two assessors (one of them is a teacher but not included in the number of teacher participants; the other a deputy head), one head teacher, and twelve teachers, eighteen actors in total.

### **5.2.2 Recruitment of participants, key informants, and their contribution**

As explained in the previous section, I started the data collection with a broad interest in the process and impact of teacher evaluation on English language teachers. I decided to recruit participants who would have access to detailed information of various teacher evaluation schemes as practiced in their own schools, as well as the authority to release this information. The other criterion for recruiting the participants was that I already have a rapport with them, so that they would be willing to express their opinions confidently about this sensitive topic of teacher evaluation. I am aware of the possibility that their being my professional contacts may influence their responses; however, at the same time, since I was known to many English teachers in the context - having worked for the SMOE for an extended period and having my name listed in numerous teaching and learning resources published by the SMOE - it might not have made that much difference. Jack met these two criteria because he was established in his school and I knew from working with him on three different projects for Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education (SMOE) that he was open and relaxed about sharing his opinions.

Maria, Ginny and Emily were recruited subsequently, partly because I wanted to investigate the influence of school context and the age of teachers on their perceptions of and the impact of teacher evaluation schemes as described in the section above, and also because I considered them to meet the two criteria described above. I had previously worked with these three teachers on different projects for SMOE or private publishers or as colleagues working in the same school. While I was interviewing Emily and Ginny, however, I felt that they were rather cautious about sharing their ideas about the teacher evaluation schemes. I also felt that they were positioning me as their senior, which created a power

imbalance. These perceptions, in addition to the fact that both were going through personal situations which were unfavourable to participating in any activities other than teaching, led me to decide not to finish the cycle of interviews with them, even though they said they were willing to continue. Maria was willing to help, but as she was participating in several other projects and leading a special programme in her school, she was only able to participate in my research to a limited degree. This made Jack a key informant in terms of investigating the process and impact of the four evaluation schemes. This is because he offered unlimited access to his educational activities and also because he went out of his way to collect information that I requested. However, this rather opportunistic selection of Jack as my key informant was counterbalanced through careful comparison of the data with that from other teachers. I also recruited Kitty, a deputy head teacher, and a head teacher, to triangulate the perceptions and experience of teachers with those of supervisors (although the data from these two participants were not used in the thesis as there was little relevance to my new focus on the TEE scheme).

While I was investigating the TEE as one of the four schemes that I was interested in, I sent out an email to all participants involved in the training that is mandated for the advanced level TEE candidates. Initially, only Irving volunteered to participate in the research, and later when I visited the site and explained my research in person during a break, about a third of the participants volunteered. I chose Irving, Bonnie, Felicity, Hazel and Sam: first because I wanted to select at least one person from each class (the teachers were divided into three classes, A, B, and C) and also because I wanted to select participants both from senior (Irving, Bonnie and Felicity) and junior high schools (Sam and Hazel). While interviewing these participants, I felt the need to triangulate the perceptions of the procedure of the training by the candidates with those of the trainers, so I recruited two of the three trainers: Charles the director of the programme, and Eugene, one of the trainers.

When my focus narrowed down to the TEE scheme, I decided to add current candidates for the basic level, although both Hazel and Felicity provided information about the basic level based on their previous experience with the level. It also turned out that one of Bonnie's colleagues, Stefan, was participating in the basic level certification. The deputy head of the school asked me to help with three teachers who were preparing for the basic level certification. I provided information to the degree that I felt was legitimate. After meeting with the teachers, I explained my research and Stefan volunteered to participate. I wanted to recruit another candidate for the basic level. While I was visiting Irving's school for an interview and observation of his usual lesson, he introduced me to his colleagues, Janet and Anny. Anny also was participating in the basic level certification and she asked for help with preparing for the assessment of lessons. While I was helping her with it, she offered to help with my research and she shared her experience with the basic level certification.

I also recruited April, a policy writer who helped shape the design of the TEE scheme, because I thought I needed to learn about its background, rationale, and overview, which I assumed to be best understood from a policy writer's perspective. Later when I was writing up, I decided to add assessors of the lessons for the basic level to triangulate the perspectives from the candidates. As I had observed the advanced level assessment procedure, I decided to only recruit assessors at this level. I read through the list of teachers who were certified at the advanced level because they were assigned to perform as assessors of the basic level assessment of lessons and I found Rima, with whom I had previously worked on two projects for the SMOE. She was more than willing to participate. I wanted another assessor to triangulate her perspectives. I consulted Kitty, the participant who I recruited as a deputy head teacher, because she has been performing a central role in English education in Seoul, and thus, I hoped that she would recommend somebody helpful. It turned out that she was one of the assessors, thus, I only needed to interview her additionally on this new topic.

Of these participants, all who have roles other than that of teachers became my key informants except for the head teacher, after my focus narrowed down to the TEE scheme. Out of teacher participants, Stefan, Sam, Rima, Felicity and Irving became my key informants, respectively representing a teacher who was certified at the basic level on the first attempt, a teacher who was certified at the advanced level on the first attempt, a person who has long been certified, a teacher who was certified at a retrial and a person who failed, particularly in terms of their experiences and perceptions of the TEE scheme and of the impact of the scheme at the personal level.

### **5.3 An overview of the data collection procedure**

The period of initial data collection is between November 2010 and January 2011; the second data collection was conducted in February 2012; the final data collection to clarify issues raised during writing up was conducted in September and October 2012. At the beginning stage of the first data collection, the focus was still wide and I was collecting data on all four teacher evaluation schemes. Thus, the following cycle of data collection with foci identified below was planned for each case study.

- Interview I – Topics: background data on the participant; conceptualization of ELT expertise; their self image as a teacher, the factors that influence their effectiveness
- Observation – Focus: teacher’s principles of teaching
- Interview II - Topics: Interview I; Observation I; procedure, experience and perceptions and impact of teacher evaluation
- Observation II – Focus: impact of teacher evaluation, particularly the TEE, which focuses on both the medium of instruction and teaching practice
- Interview III- Topics: Interview II; Observation II

With these foci, I also interviewed a head teacher and a deputy head teacher regarding their views on the four evaluation schemes and their views of the



impact of these on teachers and teaching. I finished the cycle of data collection with the first two teachers, Jack and Maria, but not with Emily and Ginny because I thought that their personal circumstances did not allow for their further participation in the research. While I was interacting with Irving, Anny and Jenet, I decided to limit data gathering to the TEE scheme and sought for thorough understanding of the certification procedure. I observed my participants preparing for the assessed lessons; observed the assessed lessons when I was allowed to or watched the video recording of the lessons teachers shared with me; observed the training programme for the advanced level candidates. I also added other participants such as policy makers and teacher trainers (one of whom was the programme director) of the training programme for the advanced level. I interviewed these participants on their experience and perceptions of the TEE scheme.

Analysing the data, I realised that I needed data on assessors' perspectives on the certification and actual marks given for different assessments conducted for the certification. I conducted the second data collection: I interviewed assessors and obtained a report on the assessment results. When I was finalising my analysis, I formed questions regarding details of the certification as well as participants' views on specific aspects of the certification which I missed during the two phases of data collection. I conducted the final data collection: I interviewed some of my participants in relation to those questions. Appendix 4 presents data I collected during the first two rounds of data collection, which I used in their entirety. It also presents the background information of my research participants. The data from a head teacher and a deputy head teacher is not included because I did not use the data: their discussion of the TEE scheme was minimal probably because the TEE scheme was conducted by the educational office, in contrast to the other schemes that they were in charge of managing and reporting on, which were their immediate concerns. The data I collected in the final data collection was not included because they were used only for clarification of specific issues.

## **5.4 Ensuring quality of the research**

### **5.4.1 Credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability**

There are different sets of criteria for judging the quality of an interpretive case study, and there is disagreement on the terms or the criteria (Dörnyei, 2007). To illustrate this divergence, the proposed sets of criteria include validity and reliability (Silverman, 2005); relevance, validity and reflexivity (Malterud, 2001); and validity, reliability and triangulation (Golafshani, 2003). The criteria overlapping among those different sets, validity and reliability, concern whether or not the researcher investigates what he or she aims to investigate and whether this is conducted in a trustworthy and traceable way.

Some researchers taking the constructivist approach, however, do not agree to using these terms or even the ideas of validity and reliability. Considering the constructivist assumption that individuals construct their own views of reality, no particular view can have weight over another; and considering that the research is co-constructed by the researcher, the participants and the specific context, the findings can hardly be replicated (Duff, 2008). So constructivist researchers present different criteria based on their positions, such as credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011, p. 13), or interpretive validity, generalisability, consistency, accuracy and truthfulness (Duff, 2008). Regardless of the differences in terms and suggested processes, what are being sought are the warrants for the knowledge claims of the research (Freeman, 2009). Below, I will discuss how I met these interrelated constructivist criteria in my research.

Duff (2008) discusses three aspects of credibility or interpretive validity: adoption of sound research methods, thorough data collection and analysis, and consideration of the needs of the readers in reporting the findings. She also makes several practical suggestions on each aspect, and I reflected them in my research.

Addressing the first aspect of the criterion, I made sure that the methodology I chose was coherent throughout, from my assumptions about the world through the actual strategies of data collections and analysis and interpretation. That is, as explained in section 5.1, I consider that social reality is understood through individuals' own perspectives, and they act based on these perceptions. Therefore, I decided to explore the TEE certification through the accounts of different stakeholders. I also consider that the documents of the certification procedure is open to interpretations and, thus, I documented the realised certification procedure rather than accepting the planned version as a given. Finally, as discussed in section 5.1, I am aware of the subjectivity which I may bring into data collection and analysis, against which I employed measures of reflexivity which I discuss later.

The second aspect of credibility is established through data collection and analysis. I carefully prepared for the interviews and observation, arriving at the site far in advance and preparing the questions (see the second journal entry of Appendix 5 which illustrates my preparation for the first interview). I conducted immediate initial analysis of the data to inform the next step of data collection. I also shared my initial interpretation with my supervisors and asked for suggestions for the next step during the initial data collection. In analysing data, I looked for patterns across the data; however, I tried to understand all outlier responses. I read through my coding and references for each code to see whether or not my conceptualisation of the coding had shifted.

In order to attend to the third aspect of credibility, addressing the needs of the readers, an audit trail was provided. This will be described in detail when dependability of the research is discussed. As another measure, Duff suggests providing close experience of the phenomena, for which a detailed description of the context was presented in Chapter 2, and the accounts of the participants were quoted throughout the data chapters.

Transferability or generalisability concerns the degree to which the findings are applicable to other contexts; this can be achieved through providing thick description of the context (Bryman, 2008; Duff, 2008), which I reflected in my thesis. For thick description, I provided a thorough account of the context in Chapter 2 and throughout my data chapters (6 through 8). I also investigated how typical the response was in reporting the results. For instance, I wrote in Chapter 8 “Regarding attitudes toward communicative lessons, of those who were certified, Felicity and Sam expressed their positive attitude and Stefan, his negative attitude. Rima did not express her position.” (p. 262).

Dependability or consistency can be ensured through being transparent as regards the decision-making process and, particularly, through providing the audit trail (Bryman, 2008; Duff, 2008). In my research journal which is over 30,000 words, I recorded major decisions and reasons for them and all the unexpected turns of events such as participants’ attitudes toward participation in the research and the refusal of access by the gate keepers, for their possible importance for data analysis. Writing these up helped me in two ways: it helped me clarify and remember my decision making process, which in turn was useful when I was writing up my thesis. For instance, I could provide the audit trail of my participant selection procedure by presenting a relevant journal entry (the first entry of Appendix 5) in section 5.2.1.

Finally, confirmability, accuracy, and truthfulness are warranted by conducting research by ensuring the integrity or truth value of the report (Bryman, 2008; Dörnyei, 2007). I specified in the report the areas I could not explore sufficiently or the areas I could not understand as this quote from Chapter 7 illustrates:

In hindsight, it is a pity that I did not further probe for the aspect they did not discuss. (Chapter Seven, p.259)

### 5.4.2 Reflexivity and triangulation

There are two additional criteria which are often discussed by researchers whose research reflects constructivism: reflexivity and triangulation. This reflects the fact that subjectivity and biases of both the researcher and the participants are critical issues in constructivist research. Malterud (2001) seems to seek answers to these problems within the researcher him- or herself through recommending reflexivity, while Golafshani (2003) looks to the research design through advocating triangulation. In this research, both of these suggestions were adopted.

**Reflexivity.** Reflexivity involves awareness of this subjectivity through considering the researcher's position regarding the context and the phenomenon and her ability to critically and ethically examine the research process (Guillemin & Gillam, 2004; Kleinsasser, 2000; Stake, 1995). It can be achieved through spelling out their assumptions before the researchers start data collection; being cautious about "member's competence" (D. Woods, 1996); involving other researchers or research participants in data collection or analysis; seeking confirming and disconfirming evidence in the data for any major themes; and through keeping a research diary. All these five measures are adopted in this research and are discussed below.

First, a brief self-report about the researcher's view of ELT expertise and teacher evaluation in the context was written before data collection occurred, in order to raise self-consciousness of the researcher's bias regarding the issues (see Appendix 6 for a sample). After finishing my first whole draft of the thesis, I went back to this report to determine the degree to which my perspectives have influenced my data collection and analysis. I could see that the perspectives which reflect my own experience as a teacher as well as the literature I have read have informed my data collection and analysis. To illustrate, I was aware of the tension between the government policy and the national exams (Paragraph 1 of Appendix 6), which I drew on to understand teachers' account of their experience regarding the promoted teaching practice. However, my own perspectives did not seem to

have prejudiced my data analysis. I myself was a practitioner of PPP in a broader sense (Paragraph 2 of Appendix 6); however, this did not limit me to consider that this was the only way to teach English during my data analysis.

Second, reflexivity involves being cautious with my member's competence.

Member's competence enabled me to describe cases from an insider's or emic view, which may save me from projecting the participants as "the exotic other" who is somehow inferior to me (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011, p. 2). Rather distinctively, I can claim my member's competence for all types of stakeholders who were recruited as my participants, that is, policy makers, teachers, teacher trainers, and teacher assessors, because I used to be all of these in the research context. I worked as a teacher between 1995 and 2009, and I was additionally a policy adviser, teacher educator and teacher assessor between 2005 and 2009 in the research context. To give more details about my relationship with the TEE scheme, I was part of the research team who developed the Teaching English in English scheme which is the focus of this thesis. Also, I have closely worked with, and discussed the scheme, with the policy maker who initially drafted the scheme and revised the scheme recently. I even sent a brief report on the draft of the revised version through email based on my initial analysis of my data which was reflected in the revision. The insider knowledge I developed through this participation in developing the TEE scheme helps me clearly understand the process from the inception to its stabilisation and all the issues that are not known to outsiders. However, I tried my best to ensure that my personal relationship with those who are related to the scheme do not bias what I write about the scheme. Related issues will be discussed in section 5.5 below on ethics.

At the same time, my membership in these roles is partial. I developed only certain aspects of the TEE scheme and left the research site before the scheme was instituted; I have not taught nor been involved in teacher education and evaluation in the context since 2009. Also, having been all of these, that is, a policy maker, teacher, teacher educator, and teacher assessor, I could never see

the TEE scheme from one particular perspective. This inevitable otherness to any specific perspective enabled me to triangulate different views of my participants of differing positions about the scheme.

I took a further measure against my member's competence threatening validity of my analysis. Rather than non-critically assuming that the terms used by the participants will denote the same concepts as mine, I unravelled participants' use of terms of importance: I carefully considered their verbalization of these concepts, compared the occurrences throughout the interviews, and asked for clarification. For instance, when Jack described himself as a good teacher, instead of conjuring up the typical image of a good teacher such as a self-sacrificing and all-knowing teacher, I prompted explanation of the term, which made me understand that, to him, a good teacher is a teacher evaluated so by students in official and unofficial teacher evaluation.

Third, all of my codes and my coding process were discussed with my supervisors (Stake, 1995). Additionally, I led two 2-hour long seminars

([http://www.kcl.ac.uk/innovation/groups/ldc/seminars/attachments/rwll/RWLL-2011-](http://www.kcl.ac.uk/innovation/groups/ldc/seminars/attachments/rwll/RWLL-2011-2.aspx)

[2.aspx; http://www.kcl.ac.uk/innovation/groups/ldc/seminars/attachments/mda/Micro-Discourse-Analysis-\(MDA\)-2010-11.aspx](http://www.kcl.ac.uk/innovation/groups/ldc/seminars/attachments/mda/Micro-Discourse-Analysis-(MDA)-2010-11.aspx)) in my research group to discuss them with other PhDs and staff members. The participants were asked to code parts of the data after I shared my background knowledge, and I was able to discuss the results of my own coding. As a result, I built confidence that my coding was thorough. There were some cases where interpretations differ, which was mostly due to the fact that the audience did not share the knowledge I share with my participants. I either provided the background knowledge or modified my interpretation in case I could not evidence the background knowledge through literature or data from other sources.

Fourth, throughout the analysis both confirming and disconfirming evidence was sought in order to verify the rigour of the coding and the analysis. In doing so,

making a table and collating the data from different participants was helpful. For instance, in trying to understand the motivation to be certified, I first made a table recording descriptive data (Appendix 7). Then I tried to explain the differences across the participants on their motivation through Dörnyei's (2009) model of self-concept, so I made another table collating the data following his model; however, I realised that the data involves more than self-concept through tabling, as shown in Appendix 8, which understanding is reflected in my writing up of the findings in section 7.1.2.

Lastly, a research diary was kept. This last measure, in particular, was used to keep the analysis transparent, thus preventing inaccurate or misleading analysis due to various causes such as mistakes or laziness, while, at the same time, helping me become a better record keeper and a more reflective analyzer (Silverman, 2005). I kept it every day during the intensive phase of the data collection and data analysis, and I am still keeping it regularly. The computerised entry amounts to 30,000 words as of February 2013; I also have written them on paper in three volumes of field notes and three volumes of personal diaries. Entries included all research activities with dates; anything which might influence the analysis, such as readings and supervisors' comments; and evaluations of, or personal reactions to, the data or data collection and analysis process. For instance, in the entry dated November 2, 2010 (I) (see the second entry of Appendix 5), I wrote how Richards (2003) informed my preparation for the first ever interview; the entry dated November 2, 2010 (II) (see the third entry of Appendix 5) records my reflection on my interview experience against the content of the book, and deals with the issue of my position during my observation of the participant's lesson.

**Triangulation.** In terms of triangulation, its most agreed definition involves incorporating the viewpoints of both the insider, the participants, and the outsider, or the researchers, of the researched phenomena (Duff, 2008). The key is the researcher's active involvement in understanding the phenomenon through cross-analysing the data from various sources and comparing different



participants' representation of the phenomenon. This is to offset any subjectivity reflected in the individual datum. For this research, I collected documents, both official and personal, which reflect the interests and values of the policy makers or people working for the institutes delegated with various tasks for the certification procedure (these will be discussed in detail in the next section). I conducted interviews with various stakeholders which reflect their subjective views of reality, and kept the observational and research notes which reflect the researcher's standpoint, to name a few. I compared all these data together and boiled them down through analysis in order to impart a deeper and more thorough understanding of the phenomenon under investigation.

## **5.5 Ethics**

The seventeen participants of the research, English language teachers and other actors for English teacher evaluation, were recruited once the ethical approval was procured from the ethics panel at King's College, London. The participants were informed of the goals and the procedures of the research. They were informed as well of the fact that they could withdraw from participation: before January 2011 when I would start writing up my thesis for the participants who were recruited during the first round of data collection and April 2012 for the participants who were recruited during the second round of data collection. Permission for retention and reuse of the data was obtained. The participants were also informed that, if they would like, the analysis results would be shared with them before possible publication. They were given the opportunity to ask about research procedures before signing their consent. Information sheets and consent forms were provided to the participants (See Appendices 8 and 9 for information sheet and consent form distributed to teachers) and the procedures were explained fully. Also, opportunities to ask questions were provided. Data collection took place in public settings, such as their own school or quiet cafes or through phone calls. When transcription of the data took place, all attempts were made to ensure anonymity. All the data were safely stored and the computers with the data are locked using secure passwords.

However, I do not think that simply following the procedures recommended by professional associations regarding the ethics of the research and obtaining participants' consent accordingly are enough to ensure the ethics of the research. I think any researcher should have genuine care for their research participants and reflect on possible impact of the research activities on them. In order to be true to my position about the ethics, I tried my best to be conscientious in my representation of the participants in writing up the results: I thought it was my way of expressing my appreciation of their generous help. In case it is likely that the participant is identifiable because of their positions, for instance, the policy maker, when I obtained data, I informed the person in writing how I would use the data and double checked whether it would be all right with the person (Grinyer, 2002). Finally, even in cases when the participant teachers said they do not mind if they were identified as the participants, I did my best to keep their anonymity, because expressing negative opinion about the government may be interpreted differently under different social contexts and, thus, may affect the teachers in an unexpected way. For this reason, I do not intend to include the transcription of full data in the thesis, particularly the Korean version, because the ways in which people talk might reveal their identity to those who know the participants.

## **5.6 Data collection tools**

As is common in most case studies (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011), three major sources of data - documents, interviews and observation - were used for this research in order to understand the TEE scheme and teachers' experience and perceptions of it. In order to investigate the aims, designs, implementations and impacts of the scheme, data from each of these three sources was collected and compared. The features of these tools and the use of them in this research will be discussed below.

### 5.6.1 Documents

Documents that are used in this thesis are materials that have been generated to serve different purposes of certification procedure. They are used to understand the features and implementation of the TEE scheme and infer teachers' teaching principles, their understanding of the TEE scheme, and the impact of the scheme on them and their teaching. They are also used to contextualize the research: contextualization is very important because it helps in deciding the transferability of the findings, understanding relevant factors bearing on the case, and situating the case in the socio-cultural, political, and psychological intricacies (Duff, 2008). The documents that I used can be categorised into official and personal, to borrow the terms used by Bryman (2004). Bryman's more recent classification (2008, 2012) which divides documents into five types - official documents deriving from the state, official documents deriving from private sources, personal documents, mass-media outputs, and virtual documents - was not adopted. This classification is non-exclusive due to conflation of two criteria, that is, the content and the medium of publication. To illustrate, most official documents on educational policy in South Korea are published in three forms at the same time, as documents deriving from the state in the form of notices to schools, as mass-media outputs that are written by a policy making team and published through resident journalists, and as virtual documents on the official websites of the educational offices or institutes.

Official documents are documents published by the educational office and various institutes, on-line and off-line, in relation to the TEE scheme. They include related policy documents, evaluation manuals, notices to schools, and reports on the certification procedure and results, as well as previous research studies which were published by institutes appointed by the government and which informed the design and implementation of the scheme. Teaching materials written for ordinary lessons and assessed lessons that I observed fall on the category of personal documents. Since the teaching materials are generated as a routine part

of teachers' responsibilities, they will provide information on teachers' views of teaching without "reactive effect" to the research activity (Bryman, 2008, p. 266). That is, rather than responding to researcher's agenda, they reflect teachers' own concerns. They, in turn, may show teachers' understanding and adoption of agendas of the scheme such as use of communicative activities.

### **5.6.2 Semi-structured interviews**

Interviews are a commonly used research tool in social science, as well as being a part of our modern daily lives (Dörnyei, 2007; Fontana & Frey, 2005). However, to benefit from this tool, their strength and limitations should be noted. While interviews enable the researcher to understand issues which are not directly observable and, in particular, to shed light on participant's perspectives, beliefs and other aspects of their cognition, it should also be appreciated that what interviewees say is just one representation of the phenomenon under investigation. It represents their report of their experience or views, which can be shaped by many factors including their previous knowledge on, and perspective regarding, the issues at hand, as well as representing how they want to be viewed. Therefore in analyzing the data, rather than accepting participants' comments at their face value, they were triangulated with other data and analyzed discursively, as discussed in 5.4.

Also, since an interview is constructed by both the researcher and the participants, I reflexively examined how my contribution influenced the interview results, and I coded my participants' responses in context. When I produced the text of my thesis, I either described the context of the responses or quoted my turn as well as the participants when I saw the possibility that my turn may have influenced their responses to take certain directions, in order for the readers to make their own decisions about such a possibility, as shown in the example below from Chapter 7. The quoted dialogue happened while Felicity described the procedure of the assessment of lessons. She said in the previous turn that she had little

knowledge about the assessed lesson before the assessment, so I further probed about the specific information she obtained before the assessed lesson:

Felicity: I heard of a clear instruction on the day of the assessment. Before then, I think I inquired of the process either to a supervisor or a previous candidate. The instructions were not written on the official notice. On the notice, only the schedule was written, “30 minute preparation and 20 minute demo lesson”. I inquired roughly what I should do, and the person let me know.

Researcher: So you learned of it being communication-centred on the day and did not have any information before the assessment?

Felicity: Not at all. (Felicity 5: 58- 60)

I wanted to check whether the requirement of communicativeness of the lesson, one of the two foci of the pedagogic practice promoted by the TEE scheme, was informed. I asked whether “[she] learned of [the lesson] being communication-centred on the day”. This wording might have revealed access to information about communication-centeredness as one of my foci, which might trigger “researcher effect,” (Dörnyei, 2007) or participant’s desire to meet expectations of the researcher. Thus, I included my prompt in the quotation<sup>14</sup>.

A semi-structured interview was adopted in this research, which is close to natural conversation but is guided and directed by the interviewer. Often in a semi-structured interview an interview guide is used, which consists of ice-breaker questions, questions about the participants’ experience of the phenomena, probe questions for meaning, and the closing question (Dörnyei, 2007). This type of interview enables the participants to tell their own anecdotes, which depict ways

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<sup>14</sup> Comparison across interviews with her and with other participants shows that her response in this case reflects what actually happened in terms of access to information.

in which they experience the world (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990), and, thus, it taps into tacit aspects of the participants' lives such as their educational beliefs (Borg, 2006; D. Woods, 1996). Open interviews have not been adopted because previous experience has shown that some participants find them to be confusing and frustrating. On the other hand, a structured interview, which forces the participant to talk only about topics chosen by the researcher and, thus, reflects outsider's or etic views of the phenomenon, does not suit this research, which attempts to explore participants' or emic views of the scheme and experiences with it. (See Appendix 11 and 12 for an initial interview schedule.)

Most interviews were digitally audio-recorded and transcribed with teachers' permission. Recording is recommended because it resolves the problem of premature analysis of observation: a field note inevitably reflects the researcher's views on the issues and, thus, is very selective. This might lead to *anecdotalism* which threatens the validity of the research (Dörnyei, 2007; Silverman, 2005). Whenever possible, as far as it does not hinder the flow of the interview, brief notes of themes were made during the interview for parts that needed further probing questions. Any additional information as well as interviews which was not audio-recorded, such as comments related to the research topic made by participants after I turned off the recorder, was also noted down as soon as circumstances allowed.

### **5.6.3 Classroom observation and stimulated recall**

Observation is another popular method for qualitative research because it provides first-hand experience with the participant as well as proving useful in broaching sensitive topics, despite its somewhat obtrusive nature (Creswell, 2009) and issues around it as discussed in 4.3.3. Observation on its own informs the current practices of the teachers and helps the researcher discover what cannot be, or is not, mentioned in the interviews, for instance identifying personal practical knowledge of the interviewee which is tacit (Cohen et al., 2011), and obtaining "a concrete descriptive basis in relation to what teachers know, think

and believe can be examined” (Borg, 2006, p. 231). Observation is important for this research, in addition to the above mentioned reasons, because it is also a part of the TEE scheme. While the researcher herself did not aim to evaluate the teachers, the observations helped her better understand the research context, the scheme, teachers’ engagement with its agenda, and its impact.

The observation may take multiple shapes according to the researcher’s decisions on various dimensions that change the nature of the observation (Cohen et al., 2011). Borg (2006) lists nine dimensions: participation of the observer in the activity; awareness of the observee of the observation; authenticity of the activity; disclosure of the purpose of the observation; method of recording; structure of the field notes; method of coding and analysis; and the length of observation, as presented in Table 3. Rightly, he does not claim the polarity of these dimensions. I describe my observation below against his criteria; it should be noted that I chose the side that is closer to my practice, but I do not consider it as clear-cut.

Relative to those nine dimensions, the observations in this research could be featured as: non-participant; noticed; explained in purpose; involve audio- or video-recording, depending on the circumstances as will be described below; include manual recording in a narrative form; have coding done after observations; and have data analyzed qualitatively and inductively; and the scope is relatively extended. The issue of authenticity is rather complex which will be discussed from the participants’ point of view in Chapter 7. These choices were based on the researcher’s intention to be as unobtrusive as possible, despite the inevitability of reactivity, in order to understand the teachers’ decisions and actions in context, as well as to respect the teachers’ right to be informed and also to avoid premature analysis. Field notes were an open record and not based on structured observation schedules because, in this exploratory research, it was not clear exactly what should be recorded, although I am fully aware of my subjectivity as a researcher as repetitively noted in previous discussions.

**Table 3 Dimensions of observational research (Borg, 2006, p.230)**

Dimension	Description	Options (from/to)
Participation	The extent to which the observer participates in the settings under study	Participant /Non-participant
Awareness	The extent to which those observed know they are being so and by whom	Overt/Covert
Authenticity	The extent to which the settings under observation are naturally occurring	Real/Contrived
Disclosure	The extent to which the purposes of the observation are explained to those being observed	Full/Minimal
Recording	How a record of the observation is made	Manual /Technological
Structure	The extent to which data are recorded against predetermined analytical categories	Closed/Open
Coding	The extent to which data are coded according to existing frameworks	Deductive /Inductive
Analysis	The role of quantification in the analysis	Quantitative /Qualitative
Scope	The extent to which a range of individuals, events and times are studied	Limited/Extended

The observations took place in the individual schools where the teachers work and the training centre for the advanced level applicants. The video recording was made as a part of the assessment procedure and was obtained with permission from the teacher. Field notes were also taken in case the recording should fail, and also to aid the researcher's reflection on the observation immediately afterwards. The lessons which took place as a part of the regular curriculum were audio-recorded with the permission of the teachers. Through use of observation, then, teachers' knowledge, principles and skills were observed or inferred, which,



in combination with the interview results, helped the researcher understand teachers' teaching principles as well as any influence of the agenda of the TEE scheme on their teaching practice (See 7.5.6 - 7.5.8 for detailed analysis of the assessed lessons).

In research on teachers, observation is often combined with interviews because cognitive aspects, such as pedagogic principles or the beliefs of teachers cannot be deduced from either observations or interviews, alone. Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, and Thwaite (2001) highlight the need for combining these two, saying:

We cannot infer the intentions of teacher action or the reasons why teachers work in the ways they do in particular lessons only from observed practices. ... We cannot assume or predict the actual classroom behaviour of teachers only from the rationale they provide for the ways they prefer to work through interview or questionnaire data. We cannot deduce language pedagogies on the basis of teachers' accounts of how they work without reflecting with them upon actual instances of practice (p.498).

This is because a single principle can be realized through numerous practices, and the same practice can be based on different principles. Practices are contingent on the topic or context, so not all practices may be observed during a limited observation period, while, in a similar vein, the professional actions of teachers do not necessarily align with their beliefs or knowledge, as discussed in Section 3.1.

For this reason, stimulated recall was used in conjunction with observation. Stimulated recall or retrospective interview techniques are often used with a view to investigating teacher cognition (Dörnyei, 2007; D. Woods, 1996). This involves inviting participants' comments on presented records of participants' performance, that is, my field notes. This helped participants to retrieve their pertinent thoughts, beliefs and knowledge, as anchored in their real practice. Through these combined methods I elicited participants' pedagogic principles and concerns, how they are realized in class, as well as their views of the TEE scheme and its impact. The procedure was conducted in a form of semi-structured

interview. I described certain events or features of the observed class, particularly on parts which seem to reveal the teacher's teaching principles and possible impact, or lack thereof, of the TEE scheme. Then the teacher was invited to comment freely on my observation, which allowed the researcher to further explore themes of interest as evolving from the teacher's comments. In doing so, it was hoped that the emic view of the teachers on the observed lesson was probed.

## **5.7 Data analysis**

### **5.7.1 Thematic content analysis**

Data analysis followed the common steps suggested by qualitative researchers (Bazeley, 2007; Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Dörnyei, 2007; Duff, 2008; Ritchie, Spencer, & O'Connor, 2003). These feature the terms *iterative*, *cyclical* or *inductive* (Duff, 2008). These terms all emphasize that the analysis should be built up from the data, through mulling over and coding and recoding the same data, until the analysis and interpretations develop and until theory and data connect. Burnard (1991) suggests the procedure as below:

1. Notes/memos
2. Familiarization with the data (repeated reading and writing)
3. Headings/open-coding
4. Looking at headings, generate higher-order codes
5. Finalizing the list of headings
6. Checking with colleagues
7. Suitability check of the headings: the degree of representation of the scripts
8. Recoding the scripts with the finalized coding schedule
9. Checking suitability of each reference under each code (context check)
10. Generating a coding scheme with references

11. Participant check
12. Putting everything together to compare across codes
13. Writing up about the data
14. Linking with the literature

I think the procedure could be summarised into roughly five steps, although the process should be iterative. The first step, familiarization, involved repeated reading, summarising the data, and memoing. Second, once I was familiar with roughly what teachers talked about, I labelled or tagged the whole data in thought groups of differing length, a phrase, a sentence, a paragraph. Third, I tried to establish the relationship between these thought groups. That is, I developed hierarchies among the codes and organised them into main themes. Teachers talked about three aspects regarding the TEE scheme, that is, decision to be certified, views and experience of each phase of the certification, and the impact of the scheme (see Appendix 13 for main and sub-themes about the TEE certification). Fourth, I refined the coding, reading through the codes and references and making sure that codes are not overlapping with each other, and through ensuring coherence within each code. Finally, I engaged in “making sense of the evidence”, or “unpacking the content and nature of a particular phenomenon or theme” (Ritchie et al., 2003, p. 237). That is, through pursuing relationships among the major themes, I could identify the factors which affected teachers’ engagement with the TEE scheme and the effectiveness of the scheme. This process was applied to the entirety of the data obtained from documents, including those published by government agencies and teachers, interviews, and observation. However, it should be noted that detailed analysis was confined to the data of the interviews, and other data was utilized, rather, to triangulate the findings, that is, to see if the teachers’ words match or contradict other sources of data, and to obtain the background information about the evaluation process.

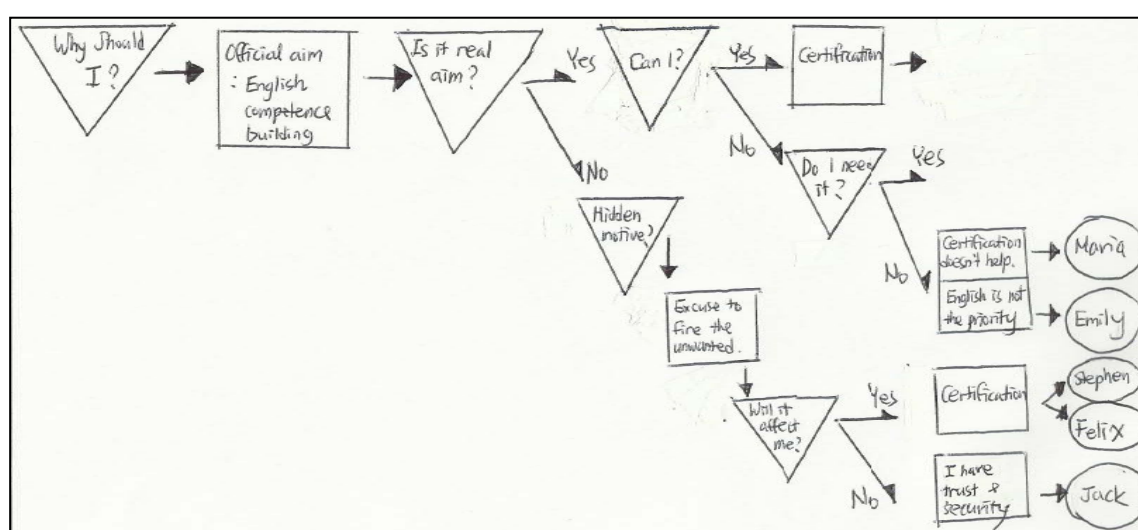
Also not all teachers were given the same amount of attention. Part of the reason was due to the amount of data: as presented in Appendix 4, the interview and

observation data from the first two rounds of data collections amount to 38 hours. Additionally, I found that data from different participants was complementary rather than contrasting. Limiting the number of teachers who I mainly drew on in discussion allowed me to consider the data in-depth and in context. In selecting the focused teachers, the following features of the data that I noted through the initial analysis were considered. First, I found the way in which they engaged with the certification led to different responses. For instance, their responses differ depending on whether or not they have applied for the certification, the level they applied for, success with certification, and time elapsed since the certification. Second, the responses from those teachers who were interviewed together because they chose to were influenced by the group dynamics, and this made participants respond selectively to questions. Finally, the teachers who were pressured for time did not expand their responses sufficiently for me to fully understand their views and experiences, particularly in terms of the impact of the scheme that is discussed in Chapter 8. This led me to choose those five teachers who are described in section 8.0. However, once any themes or patterns were identified, I carefully examined data from the other participants to decide whether data from those participants corroborated my data analysis and judged the typicality of the responses of the chosen cases of teachers, which I faithfully recorded in my writing and discussing the results.

The process of data analysis was assisted with graphic organisers (Duff, 2008) and tabling (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Using graphic organizers was helpful in visualising what I was thinking. It was particularly useful when discussing my initial ideas with my supervisors. Figure 5.1 shows an example from my writing dated May 3, 2011. Using the figure I explained how I understand my data on teachers' motivation to be certified. My supervisors noted my intention to summarise the very many factors considered by my participants into just a few major themes, and asked me to think whether I was forcing my data to fit those themes. I went back to my data and tried to be as thorough, for which tabling was found most useful. The tables (Appendixes 6 and 7) and newly gained understanding from this

were discussed in section 5.4. But most importantly, writing about my thoughts, and sharing my endless drafts of these thoughts with my supervisors as well as trying to explain my developing ideas to different audiences helped me realize the degree of my understanding of the data and the very many interpretations my data can be understood with. Particularly helpful in understanding the data and refining my ideas were presentations at different conferences and seminars (T. H. Choi, 2010a, 2010b, 2010, August, 2010, July, 2011, 2011, July, 2012a, 2012b, 2012, May, 2012, September).

**Figure 2 Possible decision making process for TEE certification**



The findings from this discursive thematic content analysis is written up in the last three chapters: teachers' experience and views of the TEE scheme, in Chapter 7; the impact of the scheme on teachers and their teaching, in Chapter 8; and finally, the relationship between the major themes, that is, the design of TEE scheme, the realised process of the scheme, the immediate and overarching contexts, teachers' beliefs and identity, and the impact of the scheme, in Chapter 9.

### 5.7.2 Transcription and translation of the interview data

I transcribed most of the data: the interview I conducted during the first and second rounds of data collection with 17 participants as presented in Appendix 4 was all transcribed verbatim. For the rest of the data, which I gathered later by

telephone or emails to clarify the questions I developed while I was writing up the results, I wrote a fairly detailed summary of the interviews, and the parts relevant to the specific questions I had were transcribed in verbatim. Transcription was done at the soonest possible opportunity. At the beginning I tried to record all of the paralinguistic features and emotions of the interlocutors to aid my memory of the interview. However, from the fourth interview, I noted only very prominent features which would affect my interpretation of the data later because I found that it was sufficient to analyze the data thematically for my purpose of understanding broader ideas and experiences of the participants, rather than analyzing it in detail as is done by discourse analysts (e.g. Stillar, 1998; Wetherell, Taylor, & Yates, 2001).

During my data collection, I used Korean. This decision was made because I knew from my own experience as a user of English as a second language, it was difficult to express deep feelings and complex ideas in English. However, in order to share my analysis with the audience who do not understand Korean, including my supervisors, I needed to translate my data into English. I will first discuss my decisions regarding translation, and then will discuss the actual process involved in it. In terms of decisions regarding translation, I used different strategies for different group of participants. For those five teachers whom I focused on as discussed in the previous section, I translated the whole interviews; for the others, only the parts that were quoted for discussion in this thesis were translated.

I was careful with my translation because I was fully aware of the issues and difficulties around translation, which include limitations of both literal translation and meaning-oriented translation, the difficulty of matching culture-specific concepts, issues with coherence of translation and transparency of the translation rules (Halai, 2007; Shah, 2004; Twinn, 1997; Xian, 2008). In order to address the issues identified in the literature, and also due to my sensitivity about consistency which I developed through my experience as a translator for the last twenty years, I followed a set of rules that I established for this research as suggested by some

researchers (e.g., Halai 2007). For instance, first, I referred to one Korean-English dictionary to keep consistency in translation. Second, I kept my own glossary for the words which were not included in the entries of that dictionary. (See Appendix 14 for all of the rules and samples of the glossary entry.) Third, in writing my thesis, I provided information on the shared knowledge between the participants and me, in order to assist the understanding of the readers from outside the research context. For a sample of interview which was transcribed and translated into English, see Appendix 15 (I include only a small part of the original data in this thesis, due to my concern about anonymity of my participants).

### **5.7.3 Use of NVivo**

The process of data analysis was assisted by a software called *NVivo*, which is designed for supporting qualitative data analysis grounded to data (Bazeley, 2007). I found the programme useful in organising the data, which allows saving each step of the recursive coding as a different document and thus making the process traceable for later reference. It is also easy to have an overview of generated codes; and it is useful in refining and shifting the codes, because the programme presents all the references of each code with just one click of the mouse and can easily collapse and divide codes. Finally, it proved useful in discussing the codes with my supervisors because I could generate an easy-to-read report of my coding using the programme together with Excel to present the codes, the number of participants who talked about the theme, numbers of references, and the actual examples of the coding.

While use of this software could not replace my analysis as I had hoped, it facilitated a more rigorous analysis and reflection on the data. Since the researcher can keep a history of all the analysis, the development of the analysis can be traced and, in combination with my research diary - which recorded what my research activities were, including conference attendance, literature which I found informative and useful, and advice from various people - I could see what

informed my decisions regarding major changes in the coding, and later adjust my analysis if it was found to be biased by those inputs.

### **5.8 Chapter summary**

In summary, the employed methodology and methods are from a constructivist perspective, which best captures individual experiences and perceptions of the TEE scheme. The validity and impact of the scheme was investigated through a case study strategy. The case as well as data to be collected was identified through funnelling and gradual focusing, and analytical induction. Data was collected through document search, semi-structured and stimulated recall interviews, and non-participant observations. Qualitative thematic data analysis was conducted, and I used the software *NVivo* to assist my data analysis. In writing the report, I was also conscientiously following the suggestions to improve the quality of this research. The next four chapters present the results from this rigorous research activity, following the policy process cycle as described in Chapter 4, but also following the themes identified through the data analysis. They will provide insight into the important issues of teacher development and pedagogical changes through a government-led curricular innovation using the tool of certification.



## **Chapter 6      Teaching English in English (TEE) Scheme**

### **6.0 Introduction**

Each city or region in South Korea started an in-service English teacher certification scheme in 2010 at the government's initiative. These schemes aim to cultivate teachers' expertise needed for developing students' communicative competence, as discussed in Chapter 2. Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education (SMOE) developed a scheme called the Teaching English in English (TEE) scheme in 2009, half a year before other regions, and other regions used the scheme as a benchmark for their own schemes. This thesis investigates this TEE scheme which affects more than 5,000 English teachers in the region. As outlined in section 4.4, the three data chapters of this thesis, Chapters 6, 7 and 8, will analyse and evaluate the planned scheme, realised scheme, and its impact, respectively. This chapter analyses the scheme as described in the relevant documents in terms of agenda setting and design against the discussion in the two literature chapters, Chapters 3 and 4.

This chapter draws on documents that describe the parent educational policies which the TEE policy forms a part of, as well as documents produced about the scheme which were either circulated within the educational office or sent to schools. The documents include the following: master plans of two policies which set the background to the TEE scheme and which were published by the Ministry of Education Science and Technology (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2005a, 2006); the master plan and a detailed plan for the regional application of these policies in Seoul (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2007, 2008b); the report submitted by the Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation which was in charge of developing the evaluation tools for the TEE scheme including the TEE index, the written test, and the observation schedule for the assessed lessons (Jin et al., 2009); the master plan by the Ministry

of Education (MOE) to improve English teachers' ability to conduct lessons in English (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2009d); plans for the TEE scheme circulated internally within the SMOE (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2010c); the official notices and manuals distributed to schools by SMOE (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2009b, 2010d); and the training materials published by the institute which was entrusted with the mandatory training for advanced level candidates (TEE training team, 2010).

This chapter starts with the description of the background of the scheme in Section 6.1. The following section, 6.2, discusses its aims and procedures and identifies possible sources of tension, mapping the scheme onto the literature on teaching expertise, curricular innovation and evaluation of teachers, all of which were discussed in Chapters 3 and 4. Finally, section 6.3 summarises the discussion on the quality of the scheme and concludes the chapter.

## **6.1 Background**

The MOE has long promoted development of students' communicative competence in English education, a matter of some priority since President Kim Young Sam's Policy of Globalisation in 1994 (G.-M. Choi, 2006). The promotion was based on the belief that English proficiency will improve the competitiveness of the nation and individuals, because English is the Lingua Franca in international communications (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2005a). Before 2005, the MOE promoted this only by revising the national curriculum and the textbooks, making these more communication-oriented. Thus, from the sixth national curriculum, building students' communicative competence was announced as the official goal of English education, and the current curriculum, 2009 Revised Curriculum – an extension of the 7<sup>th</sup> curriculum – continues to advocate communicative competence as a primary goal (for details and discussion of the English section of the national curriculum, see section 2.6). Since 2005, however, the MOE started to promote this from different dimensions, realizing the need for a multilateral approach in order to make English language

teaching in individual classrooms communication-oriented. The MOE announced a series of multi-way plans such as *Yeongeo Gyoyuk Hwalseonghwa 5-Gaenyeon Jonghap Daechaek* [5-year Plan for Revitalisation of English Education] in 2005 (ibid.), and *Yeongeo Gyoyuk Hyeoksin Bangan* [Innovation of English Education] (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2006). These policies address pre- and in-service education, recruitment of teachers, assessment of students in various contexts, and other related issues as well as the content of the curriculum.

As explained in Chapter 2, once the MOE sets a new direction for education, the regional educational offices set up and execute localised plans for the new policy. The Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education (SMOE) has announced a series of plans to promote communication-oriented English education since 2001: *Jeongbohwa Uisatong Neungnyeok Sinjangeul Wihan Yeongeo Gyoyuk 4 Gaenyeon Gyehoek* [4-year Plan to Promote ICT-based Communication-centred English Education] (2001 - 2004), *Yeongeo Gyoyuk Naesilhwa Jonghap Gyehoek* [Comprehensive Plan to Enhance English Education] (2005 - 2008), and *Seoul Yeongeo Gonggyoyuk Ganghwa Bangan* or School Managed Innovation of Learning English (SMILE) Project (2008 -2012) (B. M. Yi et al., 2011, p. 3). The most recent one, the SMILE Project, consists of different tasks which aim to promote students' practical command of English. The tasks include reinforcing pre- and in-service teacher education in order to reorient teachers to more communicative pedagogic practice than the traditional practices which focus on knowledge about English and receptive skills; building up English-learning friendly infra-structure such as English-Only Zones and English libraries within schools; and specific plans to change practiced curriculum, for example through changing teacher assessment and streaming students to their levels of English proficiency (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2008b). The institution of the TEE certification scheme was part of this project, and the next section introduces the details of the TEE scheme, the main focus of this thesis.

## 6.2 Aims of the TEE scheme

The SMOE presents the three aims of the scheme which will be discussed in turn in this section, as follows:

1. Improvement of students' communicative competence in English through development of English language teachers' expertise;
2. Promoting English as the medium of instruction;
3. Increase of trust in public English education and decrease of private expenditure on private English language education.

(Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2010d, p. 3) (my translation)

The first aim, improvement of students' communicative competence, concerns the general direction of public English education as set by the government. As discussed in the previous section, the TEE scheme was part of the policies which aim to change English education in a way which will increase students' ability to communicate in English – in contrast to English teaching widely practiced now which features teaching knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary, translating English texts into Korean, and listening skills. Description of the first aim does not prescribe any specific teaching methodology; however, the policy documents of the SMILE project, of which this scheme is a part (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2007), shows what is expected of teaching methodology, in addition to the evaluation schedule for the assessed lesson which will be discussed in section 6.2.5. It is “task-based, activity-centred teaching”, with added focus on “productive skills” such as speaking and writing (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2007, pp. 13-14). Promotion of these new foci raises an issue of their compatibility with the educational context. As discussed in section 2.2, the focus of South Korean education as expected by parents and students is to help students to pass the college entrance exam, and the exam does not focus on the ability to communicate. This initiative thus places teachers in tension between the two different expectations, a situation described by Stein

and Matsumura (2009) as common for many teacher evaluation schemes. Such a gap may threaten validity of the scheme if it is not addressed explicitly during the evaluation procedure. For example, Ladson-Billings (2009) recommends that the assessed teachers are given opportunities to discuss their pedagogical choices through a post-assessment conference. (see 4.3.5 for further discussion). How this limited relevancy to the context affects the experience and impact of the scheme will be discussed in the next two chapters.

The second half of the first aim shows that the SMOE views “development of English language teachers’ expertise” as the prerequisite for this task; in other words, it suggests that teachers’ current level of expertise is not sufficient to improve students’ communicative competence. As its second aim shows, the scheme singles out the ability to conduct lessons in English as the ability to be cultivated in teachers. This deficient view may be true for teachers who had been trained in the traditional way only; however, it does not reflect the ability of English teachers recruited from 2005. These teachers have passed the English essay test and assessment of microteaching conducted in English as part of their recruitment tests (Jeong, 2006) (see section 2.7 for further details on the procedure of becoming a teacher). In fact, the Ministry of Education (MOE) had conducted a survey on teachers’ self-evaluation of their ability to conduct lessons in English in 2006, and over 50% of secondary school teachers responded that they were confident in their ability to do it (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2006, p. 10). Assuming that teachers’ self reporting of the ability to conduct lessons in English reflects the reality, at least for half of English teachers English proficiency is not the barrier to adopting this promoted practice. The barrier is more likely to be the fact that what is promoted is not compatible with teachers’ views of the desired way of teaching English shaped by the educational culture recapped above. This possibility is supported by research on teacher cognition and educational innovations as discussed in Chapters 3 and 4. Teachers’ beliefs about effective teaching decide whether or not teachers adopt certain pedagogical practice (e.g., Borg, 2006; Canagarajah, 2005). Teachers’

accounts of the degree to which they are to adopt the promoted practice through the TEE scheme in their usual lessons and the reasons for their choices will be discussed in Chapter 8.

The second aim reveals another assumption of this certification: students' communicative competence will develop best in a language classroom where English is the medium of instruction. This aim, 'promoting English as the medium of instruction' may read as if it excludes the use of L1 in the classroom; however, a policy document published by the SMOE on its detailed plan of the SMILE project shows that the scheme accepts use of L1, as shown in the quote below. This can be interpreted as a movement away from the earlier position which promoted exclusive use of L2 as the medium of instruction, and it might also be seen in light of current research on bilingual education in that it acknowledges the positive contribution L1 makes in L2 learning (e.g. G. Cook, 2010; Copland & Neokleous, 2011). The relevant part of the policy document specifies the ways English is expected to be used in the classroom (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2007, p. 13):

- Lesson management and explanations are conducted in English. (Reading aloud from the textbook does not count as using English.)
- The majority of the lesson, except for explanation of complicated grammatical items, is conducted in English. (At least 80% of the explanations in one lesson, on average.)

The document shows that the use of the mother tongue up to 20%<sup>15</sup> or more in one lesson is allowed. This guideline acknowledges the fact that learners can benefit from using both L1 and L2 and respects teachers' expertise in teaching by allowing room for professional discretion. At the same time, however, the view expressed in this document on the use of L1 is rather limited. The view of teaching

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<sup>15</sup> The reason for setting this percentage is not explained anywhere.

reflected in this certification seems a teacher-centred one. The only teaching activity mentioned is teachers' explanation, and only teachers' use of English is mentioned. In contrast, the observation schedule for assessed lessons developed by the research team, which will be discussed in the next section, emphasises provision of opportunities for students to use English, perhaps better reflecting the original purpose of the scheme. This different emphasis, that is, teachers' use of English as the medium as stated in the document vs. students' use of English as reflected in the observation schedule, may be a source of confusion; how this inconsistency has been experienced and dealt with by teachers and assessors will be discussed in Chapter 7.

The third aim, increasing students' and parents' trust in public English education and decreasing the need for expenditure on private English language education<sup>16</sup>, reveals two assumptions. First, there is distrust of public English education. Second, there is a causal link between this assumed distrust in English education and individual households' expenditures on private English language education. Acting on these assumptions, the MOE aims to reinforce public English education through instituting the TEE certification which aims "to improve students' and parents' satisfaction from, and trust in, school English education" in order to curb private expenditure on private English education (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2009d, p. 3).

However, research on individual households' expenditures on private education, as W. H. Yi (2008), Ahn (2008), and Park, Byun and Kim (2011) note, reveals that it is due to parents' desire to place their children in a better position in the competition for the college entrance exam and for a better life and to beat the unstable college entrance exam system which is subject to change as a result of changes in government policy, rather than due to dissatisfaction with the public

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<sup>16</sup> The sum of individual households' expenditures on private English language education amounts to £862,878,000 since 2008 (Heo, 2012; W. H. Yi, 2008, p. 1)

English education. This research result is in conflict with both assumptions underpinning the third aim of this certification. Thus, blaming the financial burden of individual households from private English education on public sector English education and on teachers' lack of competence is unfounded, which may create tension. Teachers' perceptions and responses related to this issue will be discussed in Chapter 7.

It is worth evaluating the scheme on its own terms, that is, in terms of the effectiveness of the scheme in achieving its own aims of cultivating teachers' expertise and English proficiency, because almost 50% of secondary school teachers consider they are not capable of conducting lessons with English as the main medium of instruction according to the survey reported above (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2006, p. 10). The research team in charge of developing the TEE scheme researched the nature of teacher expertise in terms of what is required to improve students' communicative competence. This was conceptualised as consisting of the following three elements: knowledge about teaching English, ability to conduct communication-centred lessons, and English proficiency (Jin et al., 2009, p. i). Over all, the conceptualisation has a rather weak concurrent validity: having competences to perform sub-tasks does not necessarily mean that the teacher will be able to integrate and use them appropriately to perform the main task (Wilson, 2009), in this case, teaching English in a communicative way using English as the medium, as discussed in Chapter 3. The degrees of integration and appropriate use of these individual competences in lessons depends on the level of expertise of the teacher. On the other hand, the conceptualisation has its own strength. It reflects what is specific about English language teacher knowledge as identified in 3.1.6, that is, language proficiency. How these competences were operationalised in the scheme will be discussed in the following sections.

The next section, 6.3, will discuss the detailed procedure of the TEE certification that is described in initial documents generated for executing the certification as



outlined in section 6.0, and will evaluate it against the literature reviewed in Chapters 3 and 4.

### **6.3 Procedure of the TEE scheme**

The certification has two levels, the basic level, TEE-Ace (TEE-A), which all teachers are expected to take; and the advanced level, TEE-Master (TEE-M), which is intended for those who are interested in teacher training. The certification process consists of three common components across the two levels, that is, the TEE index, a written test, and assessment of teaching based on observed lessons. For the advanced level, there is an additional compulsory training programme. These will be discussed in the following sections in turn.

#### **6.3.1 TEE index**

The TEE index system is a record of teachers' professional development. The teachers need to obtain a certain TEE index score before being allowed to apply for the certification: in the case of the basic level, 30 points, and in the case of the advanced level, 80 points (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2009b). The TEE index system shows the degree to which teachers have invested in their professional development by taking account of their participation in teacher training and in other professional development activities, such as pursuing a higher degree and conducting action research, and through a process of assigning varying scores to different activities (see Appendix 16 for the acknowledged activities and calculation of the index from them). For instance, attending 10 hours of training earns the applicant 1 point, writing a teaching and learning resource earns 5 points, and obtaining a PhD brings 30 points. The assignment of scores has been designed to roughly correspond to the perceived difficulty of the activity; however, the number of points given to each activity seems rather arbitrary.

The TEE index system was originally introduced in 2008 to diagnose individual teachers' needs for professional development in relation to their ability to

conduct lessons in English, and to officially recognise and reward their expertise if the teachers have such ability or to provide needed assistance for those who need improvement (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2007). All full-time English teachers in Seoul possess such a record, regardless of their application for the TEE scheme. This system encourages teachers to continuously engage in a variety of professional development activities. Its emphasis on continuous development is also reflected in how the points are calculated. For instance, there is a cap on the number of points one can gain from attending training per year and on the scores recognised per category of the activities. As another example, the developmental index is awarded for both teachers' efforts to develop themselves and for their outcomes. For instance, a teacher's taking a standardised English test, regardless of the results, is acknowledged.

This prerequisite has a potential to promote teachers' engagement in professional development activities through acknowledging professional development efforts, but equally it can be a huge imposition, depending on individual teachers' interests in chosen types of activities and their personal circumstances. In addition, despite its strength that it includes a variety of activities and that it acknowledges effort regardless of the actual results, such as test scores, it also has weakness: the activities acknowledged by the SMOE are only those activities governed by the SMOE. Considering the fact that professional development opportunities are provided by diverse organizations, this is rather limiting and biased. The experiences of some teachers on this requirement are discussed in the next chapter.

### **6.3.2 Written test**

The second requirement for the award of the TEE, the English Teaching Knowledge Test (ETKT or TEE-KT), aims to measure "pedagogical knowledge that is needed in conducting English lessons" (my translation) (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2010c, p. 1). The team reports that the decision on its content was based on analysis of three tests which are used in current English language

teacher training programmes, that is, the Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT) developed by Cambridge ESOL, the assessed essays of the Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (CELTA) and the written test which forms part of the Certificate in English Language teaching to Young Learners, both of which are developed by University of Cambridge ESOL examinations (Jin et al., 2009). The test consists of 80 items. For most of my participants, the items solely consisted of true-false or multiple choice questions. For Stefan who took the test most recently, there were two short-answer items: the participants were asked to name concepts after reading their short descriptions. The items were screened through validity checks by different educationalists and a process of piloting (Jin et al., 2009, pp. 61-63). In order to help teachers prepare for the test, an on-line training programme was developed and offered (EBS 원격교육연수원 [EBS on-line teacher education center], 2013).

The construct of the test, teaching competence, is divided into knowledge of linguistics and knowledge of English language pedagogy (Jin et al., 2009, p. 49). The two content areas are further divided into thirteen sub-areas. The former, knowledge of linguistics is divided into the following four:

- phonology
- grammar/syntax
- phonetics
- pragmatics/sociolinguistics

The latter, knowledge of English language pedagogy, is divided into the following nine:

- SLA/background to language learning
- approaches/methods
- practice activities and tasks
- language skills
- teachers' and learners' language in the classroom/learners' mistakes and correction strategies

- teaching materials and aids/technology
- lesson planning
- classroom management/introductory activities/presentation techniques
- assessment

The strength of the TEE written test lies in the fact that it has been developed through a lengthy process of analysing various tests used in teacher training programmes, of validation and piloting. The content areas also overlap roughly with the two areas of PCK identified through the analysis of the professional literature as discussed in section 3.1.6 (see Appendix 2), that is, PCK generic to all subjects and PCK specific to ELT. The sub-areas of the PCK generic to all subjects identified by the research team and the areas identified through my analysis of professional literature overlap to a large degree: they both cover lesson planning, classroom management, conducting lessons, and evaluation of learning. The differences between the two lists are understandable. The sub-areas identified by the research team do not include PCK regarding a syllabus design, perhaps reflecting the fact that the curriculum in this context is very much fixed by the textbook and the national curriculum. It does not cover professional development, probably because this is measured separately by the TEE index which was discussed in the section above.

However, the written test has weaknesses: some aspects of the test do not reflect the stated aims of the scheme or the test. First, the list of identified sub-areas of teaching competence does not effectively reflect the aims of the scheme, that is, its focus on productive skills. For instance, lexis has a very important role in communication and learners consider it as a crucial part of language learning as Hedge (2000) points out (p. 110-111). Two thirds of the professional literature I analysed also discuss lexis, reflecting its importance. However, the list does not include lexis. Second, analysis of the item description and sample items shows that the test does not fit with its announced aim of measuring “pedagogical knowledge that is needed in conducting English lessons” (Seoul Metropolitan

Office of Education, 2010c, p. 1), not to mention the fact that some of these sample items do not require much understanding of ELT or linguistics to answer them. The item developers' description of the items shows that the test is limited to measuring fairly theoretical knowledge. For instance, the description of the area of pragmatics and sociolinguistics reads: "The questions in the area of semantics are mainly about important semantic notions and concepts. Semantic phenomena are very abstract to explain..." (ibid. p. 58). Understanding notions and concepts represents a very limited part of teacher knowledge required to conduct lessons, thus raising the issue of construct validity as discussed in Chapter 4. Also, to analyse the actual items (see Appendix 17 for sample items), they all, regardless of the areas, seem to measure only declarative knowledge and exclude procedural knowledge. For instance, the item on lesson planning (item no. 43 in Appendix 17) asks whether or not the teacher should play a central role in a learner-centred lesson. To compare this item with the ones in the lesson planning section of the Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT) by Cambridge ESOL, they ask about practical activities the teachers will engage with when they prepare for the lesson: the elements that teachers actually write down in the lesson planning, directions for activities, and staging the lessons, etc (University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations, 2009). It certainly does not concern the judgment of teachers as discussed in section 4.3.5. The orientation of the TEE-KT toward declarative knowledge seems to be problematic, considering the practical aims of the scheme.

### **6.3.3 Assessed lessons**

The Teaching Practice Test (TPT) is conducted once for the basic level and four times for the advanced level. The two levels share the same observation schedule, but the procedures are qualitatively different. The procedure for these two levels will be contrasted for better understanding of their particulars. In terms of access to information before the assessment, applicants for the advanced level are informed of the detailed procedure through the mandatory training, which will be discussed later. In contrast, the basic level applicants are left to work out for

themselves the details of the assessment. For instance, they are expected to look up the information on the observation schedule from the SMOE website, which is not particularly candidate-friendly, and within a copy of the TEE manual, which is distributed to each school (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2010c, p. 4). Thus, the beginner level candidates may find it difficult to obtain relevant information, which in turn may threaten the reliability of the assessed lesson for this level. Candidates' experiences regarding this are discussed in 7.4.1 and 7.5.3.

In terms of the actual assessment, the basic level applicants are assessed at an assessment centre on a 20-minute microteaching session. The use of the microteaching sessions as well as providing a pre-selected reading text on site to build a lesson on and asking the candidates to plan the lesson within the same amount of time is to ensure comparability across teachers. However, as mentioned in Chapter 4, evaluating teachers based on microteaching sessions can lack validity because the procedure does not bear much resemblance to real lessons (Millan & Darling-Hammond, 1990, p. 185). This is particularly the case with the basic level because they are assessed through only one observation. Considering the fact that an assessor can see only what is observable and observation can be very subjective, as discussed in section 4.3.3, judging teachers' ability to teach through a 20 minute-long microteaching at an artificial setting may threaten the validity and reliability of the assessment. Actual realisation of this process for the basic level will be discussed in section 7.4.

The advanced level applicants are assessed four times, three times during the mandatory training programme which is to be discussed later, and once at their own schools after completion of the training course. For this level, the assessment of the lesson is combined with assessment of their participation in the training programme. The total mark consists of four areas: attendance in the mandatory training (10%), class participation, two 10-minute microteaching sessions and written reflections (20%), one 20-minute microteaching session (20%) and the final real-time lesson at the participants' school (50%) (TEE training team, 2010, p.

11). Inclusion of these various aspects in assessment is partially explained by the fact that the advanced level certificate has the additional aim of training teachers to mentor other teachers and to develop their English proficiency to replace existing native speaking English teachers (NESTs) (TEE training team, 2010, p. 1). Therefore, to ensure reliability the advanced level assessment of teaching is conducted on several occasions. Additionally it aims to develop and measure candidates' English proficiency as well as their ability to mentor others through their reflections on their own teaching and discussion of it with other participants.

Both levels of candidates are assessed on their teaching based on the same assessment schedule (See Appendix 18 for the schedule). The schedule reflects the TEE scheme's aim to build students' communicative competence through encouraging provision of opportunities to use English. It is also in line with the demand of the national curriculum (see section 2.6 for its details) to adopt communicative activities and tasks as means to achieve this goal. For instance, it places great emphasis on use of activities and tasks (28 points out of 100) and students' use of English (16 points out of 100). It also asks teachers to run the activities and tasks in a way that the students' utterances and output are "active and spontaneous" and "creative and authentic" (see Activities and Task section of the Appendix 18), thus emphasising students' expression of their own meaning. The flow of the lesson is divided into opening, presenting the target language, executing guided practice, executing communicative activities and tasks, and closing, clearly reflecting the Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) framework<sup>17</sup> (Willis, 1997). The strengths and weaknesses of this schedule are discussed below.

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<sup>17</sup> Willis (1996) describes the PPP lesson as consisting of "presentation of single 'new' item", practice of the item, and free use of it in activities, role plays or tasks. (p. 135)

The strength of the schedule is that it acknowledges the situatedness of teaching expertise and the importance of teachers' judgement on when to use the competences teachers have developed for an expert performance. Rather than stopping at checking whether or not a teacher possesses certain competences, which has been identified in Chapter 4 as a weakness of many teacher evaluation schemes, the schedule asks the assessors to evaluate teachers' appropriate use of these competences. For instance, the descriptors in the observation schedule uses expressions such as "appropriate" and "effective" in relation to teachers' decision-making. Regrettably, however, this high-inference evaluation, which involves subjectivity on the assessors' part, is not paired with measures to ensure reliability. For this type of high-inference evaluation, and when the assessors are asked to rate teachers' performances during observation, the following measures are recommended, as discussed in section 4.3.6. The schedule is developed for its detail including descriptors for each level of performance (McCloskey et al., 2007; McGreal, 1990); assessors justify their judgment with observed behaviours (Cangelosi, 1991; Stronge & Tucker, 2003); high-inference items are backed up by low-inference items (Grift van de, 2010); however, none of these are built into the scheme. Assessor training is another way (Iwanicki & Rindone, 1995; Poster & Poster, 1993), but the scheme in plan does not clarify how the assessors will be trained.

There are some other potential areas of tension in the schedule. First, following the PPP framework reflected in the evaluation schedule limits the organisation of lessons, which seems problematic. It excludes other legitimate ways of organising lessons, even though now it is acknowledged that the most effective approach to language teaching depends on the context and the learners (Bax, 2003; Canagarajah, 2005). Another problem related to this promoted way of teaching is that even PPP requires a huge change in pedagogical practice for many teachers. Many teachers have focused on declarative grammatical knowledge and translation as well as test-taking skills due to students' and parents' expectation that the lessons should help students to pass the national entrance exam as



discussed in sections 2.2 - 2.4. Some of these teachers may need to learn how to conduct lessons in the prescribed way, because the promoted focus on communication would require a different set of PCK than was required by the traditional way of teaching. If the onus of learning this new set of PCK is placed on teachers, it may prove very difficult for those who have not had any contact with this type of teaching, raising the issue of feasibility.

Second, the schedule's requirement for teachers' language to demonstrate "flawless vocabulary and grammar" may become a source of tension. The requirement suggests that the government promotes native speaker norm as the target of teachers' language attainment. Traditionally the targeted norm has been that of American English in South Korea. In addition to the theoretical argument against setting the norm as the target based on the conceptualisation of the communicative competence as proposed by Hymes (1972/2001), such a goal has other shortcomings. As discussed in section 2.8.2, it is not possible for many English teachers to perform to that standard; it results in teachers' loss of confidence. The assumption of this goal, which is that most students need to obtain this specific norm, is disputable.

Perceptions of the candidates and assessors of the assessed lessons in relation to the raised issues will be discussed in the next chapter.

#### **6.3.4 Mandatory training programme**

The 60-hour mandatory training for the advanced level candidates has three objectives: improvement of ability to conduct lessons in a way promoted by the TEE scheme and to assess lessons; improvement of ability to mentor English teachers; securing a personnel pool to replace the NESTs (TEE training team, 2010, p. 1). The training consists of three components: teaching methodology and teaching analysis, microteaching, and a special lecture and peer conferences. The trainees are provided with a 27-page manual, which introduces the aim, outline, and timetable of the programme, and brief lecture notes for each session. It also

covers the regulations in terms of attendance and includes the evaluation criteria and schedule. In the trainee's manual, the participants are asked to do the following during the training:

1. Reflect on own teaching
2. Cooperate in group work
3. Speak in English all the time
4. Participate actively in class discussion
5. Have an open mind to be trained to do TEE
6. Contribute opinions and ideas for improved teaching (ibid. p.8)

These expectations address all of the course objectives, at least indirectly. The first and fifth expectations concern the first objective, improving ability to conduct lessons in the way promoted by the scheme. After all, positive attitude toward the promoted pedagogic practice and reflection on current practice are prerequisites for pedagogical change in ELT curricular innovations as discussed in section 3.2.2. The second and sixth touch the objective, improving mentoring ability, in the sense that mentoring involves cooperation and description of, and suggestions for, teaching. The third and fourth expectations relate to the third objective, preparing teachers to replace the NESTs, because it concerns provision of opportunities to practice speaking and expressing their opinions in English. The third requirement is noteworthy because asking participants to speak English all the time may cause misunderstanding that what is promoted is exclusive use of English rather than flexible use of it in class. The degree to which this is the case will be discussed in the next chapter.

The first component, teaching methodology and teaching analysis, consists of five sessions which cover good teaching skills such as engaging students and scaffolding learning as well as presentation skills and teacher talk in English. They are structured around the observation schedule. The titles and content of these

sessions reflect the first three phases of the lesson identified in Section A of the schedule (e.g., “warm-up to presentation” and “presentation to guided practice”) and there is a session on teachers’ language use which addresses Section B of the observation schedule (Appendix 18). However, no session addresses how to set up and manage activities and tasks, which contains what differentiates pedagogic practice promoted by the scheme from the traditional practice. For instance, as discussed in Chapter 2, inducing students’ expression of their own meaning is a drastic departure from the traditional practice which features mechanical practice of presented grammatical items or functional expressions. Additionally, literature on teacher development and curricular innovations as discussed in Chapters 3 and 4 shows that teachers’ adoption of new pedagogic practice in usual lessons is often preceded by obtaining skills required for new pedagogic practice. Thus, failure to address this final phase is regrettable.

The second component, microteaching, involves preparing and conducting microteaching sessions, reflection on those, and applying the knowledge gained to “normal” lessons. Thus, this seems to address the first objective of the course, the ability to conduct lessons in English. Another notable feature of microteaching is that it includes reflection on teaching. The teachers are asked to reflect on each microteaching with the help of feedback from the instructors and their colleagues. In this way, the scheme reflects the current discussion on the nature of teacher change in relation to their pedagogic practice. Teachers’ pedagogic practice in usual lessons is shaped by their beliefs about teaching (e.g., Borg, 2006; Freeman & Johnson, 1998); thus, changing the practice requires for them to understand their own assumptions and notice the differences between their current assumptions and the assumptions behind the promoted practice (Kubanyiova, 2009); reflection on their teaching helps teachers notice the differences (Russell & Munby, 1992). (see 3.1.6 and 3.2 for relevant discussion).

Finally, the last component consists of a special lecture which explains the purpose of the advanced level certificate, and a peer conference where

participants freely discuss their ideas about the microteaching sessions and help each other prepare for them. Orienting the advanced level candidates about the purpose of the certificate through the lecture seems a good idea because these participants are to be entrusted with a leadership role upon certification, and the sense of direction is a must to perform such a role. Allotting the time to discuss the microteaching session with other participants can be viewed both positively and negatively. Shulman (2009) points out that “the very act of preparing for and engaging in assessment would be a powerful form of professional development” although some people consider discussing and coaching one another in preparing for the assessment as cheating (p.241). How this session works in practice will be discussed in Chapter 7.

### **6.3.5 Post-certification**

Those who achieve basic level certification are granted an allowance for self-development of approximately £250 (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2011e, p. 1). This is to be used for designated purposes only, buying books on English language learning and teaching and attending job-related training and conferences. The advanced level candidates are offered one-month training in English speaking countries such as the US and the UK, where they participate in a teaching practicum. Those who could not attend the training were given an allowance of approximately £500 in compensation (ibid. p.1). This money was to be used for the same purposes specified for the basic level certification. Provision of this allowance as well as the overseas training seems to match the scheme’s aim to promote teachers’ continuous development because it offers the opportunity for the teachers to further engage in developmental activities after the certification. On the other hand, the reward of sending the certified abroad raises questions about what contributes to teacher development: whether these provisions are genuinely developing teachers’ expertise or have only face validity. In Chapter 3, it was argued that teaching expertise requires knowledge of the context and knowledge about the community of practice, which the overseas

programmes cannot offer. Additionally, it was also pointed out that teaching methods cannot simply be imported from one context to the other because of differences in educational culture and infrastructure (e.g., Canagarajah, 2005).

Both levels of certified teachers are given opportunities to participate in assessing or mentoring other teachers, which may provide additional motivation for further professional development or prove too challenging to teachers. Teachers' perceptions of this provision will be presented in the next two chapters. The number of teachers who gained the certification is planned to be announced on the national school information website (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2009d). This announcement can be motivating to potential candidates but at the same time this may threaten those who cannot be certified. This issue also relates to emotional experience of the assessment which was discussed in section 4.3.4. It is also being planned that those certified will be advantaged when they apply for positions such as supervisors at the educational offices, master teachers, and teaching consultants (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2011a), which seems a good way to provide teachers who continuously develop themselves with opportunities to use the skills and knowledge they have developed. The impact of this scheme on teachers' professional development will be discussed in Chapter 8.

#### **6.4 Chapter summary**

This section will summarise the evaluation of the scheme discussed in the chapter. The chapter started with raising concern about the legitimacy of the first aim, particularly in terms of the way the first aim is assumed to be realised. Based on the policy document of the overarching policy of the SMILE project, the teaching methodology promoted by the scheme, even though it is not spelled out, is teaching in communicative ways using communicative tasks and activities. This was problematised because of possible incompatibility of the methodology with students' and parents' expectations about English teaching which focuses on passing the national college entrance exam rather than obtaining communicative

skills. The third aim was also found as lacking legitimacy because it was built on the inaccurate assumption that families spend money on private education because they are not satisfied with the quality of state education, in contrast to the findings that they invest money to secure their children's competitive edge in terms of obtaining higher education and jobs rather than from dissatisfaction with the provided education.

The chapter evaluated the scheme on its own terms too, which can be summarised using the terms of quality criteria for teacher evaluation; that is, validity, reliability and usability. Overall, the scheme displays varying degrees of validity to judge from the point of teacher evaluation. To consider the degree to which the three aims of the scheme are addressed by the scheme in plan, in terms of the first one, to develop teachers' expertise that is needed to develop students' communicative competence, the scheme exhibits partial validity. It displays content validity in the sense that it discusses all three components of teaching expertise; that is, declarative knowledge, skills and practices, and judgement (see 3.1.4 for relevant discussion).

It seems to have differing potential for consequential validity across the levels of certification and areas of expertise. The expertise needed was operationalised as English language proficiency, ELT-specific PCK, and ability to teach communicatively. The certification itself does not seem to have direct influence on teachers' English proficiency: only advanced level candidates have some opportunities to use English, at best. However, the very fact that the teachers are required to teach in English and to be certified to demonstrate their ability to do so may indirectly motivate teachers to improve their proficiency. For the other two areas of expertise, PCK and ability to teach communicatively are reflected in the assessed lessons and, for the advanced level candidates, in the one-month mandatory training. The high-inference items in the observation schedule imply evaluation of PCK. The ability to teach communicatively is also reflected in the schedule, but regrettably, it is operationalised too narrowly. That is, the schedule

exclusively promotes the PPP framework, and excludes other legitimate ways of communicative teaching, compromising content validity. However, the provision of opportunities for discussion of their own and other teachers' microteaching and for reflection on them may lead the participants to expand the conceptualisation of communicative lessons. The training also follows the PPP framework but only addresses the first two phases of the PPP framework and leave the teachers to work out how to realise the final phase in their lessons, limiting its consequential validity.

For the second aim, to increase the use of English as the medium of instruction, the scheme in plan is right to reconceptualise English as a medium of communication rather than a subject to study, and to accept the role played by students' L1, Korean. However, there are potential barriers for consequential validity. Documents distributed to teachers do not communicate the flexible approach to the medium of instruction very well. The evaluation schedule of the assessed lesson reflects a native speaker model of English as the standard for the assessed lessons, which is manifest through the criteria such as "flawless vocabulary and grammar." This goal was argued as an unrealistic and perhaps unnecessary goal. No plan was made to assist the basic level candidates with developing their English proficiency in preparation for the assessment; while the advanced level candidates are given opportunities to practice using English during the mandatory training.

Reliability was identified as a potential area of tension, because the observation schedule is of high-inference and in-class rating type and the measures to ensure its reliability (e.g., requirement to justify the judgment with observable behaviours and assessor training) are not ensured. There are some issues of usability. First, setting the native speaker norm as the target proficiency may incur unnecessary emotional cost. The requirement for all teachers to participate in the scheme, despite the differences in training and their abilities to conduct lessons in English, also will result in a waste of resources. Identifying the needs of each

teacher, whether it is language proficiency or procedural knowledge to conduct lessons in English, or merely persuasion to adopt the promoted practice, would prove more effective to support teachers to adopt the initiative.

To sum up, the scheme in plan exhibits mixed and rather limited potential for intended curricular innovation. The evaluation of the design of the scheme, however, does not provide a full picture of its effectiveness and impact. As discussed in Chapter 4, a policy can only be understood fully by investigating its realised form. Some sources of tension may be solved by the people who enact the TEE scheme, and some new problems may be created. The next chapter, therefore, will discuss how the TEE scheme has evolved interacting with the context and the actors in it, and how it is perceived and experienced by the teachers.



## Chapter 7      TEE Scheme as Realised

### 7.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses how the planned TEE scheme outlined in the previous chapter was adapted and elaborated in order to be put into practice, and how different actors 'did' the TEE scheme. Understanding the actual process of a policy is important because implementing policy in practice is the result of interaction among various elements including stakeholders' perceptions, resources, and contexts. Through this interaction the realised policy becomes something qualitatively different from the planned policy (Ball, Maguire, Braun, et al., 2012). Therefore, it is important to investigate what actually happens as a consequence of this interaction, which is the aim of this chapter. The discussion will lay the foundation for understanding the impact of the scheme which will be discussed in the following chapter.

This data chapter draws on both first-hand and second-hand data on the certification procedure. I personally observed different parts of the certification procedure including preparation for the assessment, teacher training, and assessed lessons at various sites such as the training centre and candidates' schools; kept field notes; obtained video recordings of the assessed lessons which I later repeatedly watched to understand and analyse the procedure. I also participated in all of the on-line trainings on the certification that were offered to all teachers and downloaded all training materials. I observed parts of off-line training for the advanced level candidates to familiarise myself with the content of the training, and collected the trainee's manual. I observed teacher participants' usual lessons whenever possible to understand their teaching principles which they often refer to when they discuss the TEE scheme and collected teaching materials. Finally, I conducted interviews with different actors including teachers, teacher trainers and assessors, and policy makers in order to understand their perceptions of the procedure. As well, I obtained second-hand data on the

procedure through collecting related documents. I obtained a report on the procedure which contained marks of different parts of assessments for each candidate as well as assessors' evaluative comments on the assessed lessons, which helped me understand assessors' decision making in relation to teachers' performances which I observed. I collected practical documents such as notices to assessors and teachers, which I analysed to understand what was actually communicated during the implementation phase.

Different phases of the realised scheme will be discussed in chronological order, largely corresponding to the order presented in Chapter 6, but reflecting changes that arose during its realisation and teachers' perceptions of their engagement with the scheme which correspond to themes identified from the interview data (see Appendix 13 for themes identified in relation to the TEE scheme). I will also flag up the issues and areas of tension created or solved through the realisation process, as well as the quality of the scheme such as validity and reliability as discussed in Chapter 4. Section 7.1 discusses candidates' decision to be certified; 7.2, obtaining the TEE index; 7.3, taking the written test; 7.4, Ace (basic) level assessments after the written test; 7.5, Master (advanced) level assessments after the written test; and 7.6, results. Finally, in section 7.7, I will summarise what happens when implementing a professional development policy in the form of certification and will highlight any related issues that have been discussed.

From this chapter on, interview data is quoted. For each quotation, the participant, the sequential number of interview the quotation is taken from, and the serial number of the turns of the quotation are identified in the parenthesis. For instance, (Felicity 4: 203) shows that the quotation is from the fourth interview with Felicity, and it was either the entirety or a part of the 203<sup>rd</sup> turn in the interview. Some interviews were conducted over a whole day: all these interviews were given the same sequential number with added segment number. For instance, the interview number 2-3 shows that the excerpt is from the third segment of the second interview (the interview I conducted on the second day of

data collection with the participant). The number of the turn was given both to the utterances of the researcher and of the participant; if the quotation is a part of the turn, an ellipsis mark was inserted for the part that was not included in the quotation. Some of the data is presented with information on timeframe instead of the number of turns, such as (Ashley 01:15-02:00). This is because only the part which contains the relevant information was transcribed. Utterances originally said in English are Romanised. Words inserted for clarification of meaning, for instance to identify pronouns, are presented in square brackets. Finally, double round brackets contain explanation of the situations.

It should be noted that in this chapter I am discussing the scheme mainly on its own terms. That is, despite disagreements in the field of Applied Linguistics over the agenda of both the use of English as the medium of instruction and teaching language in communicative ways, as discussed in section 2.8, having raised related issues in the previous chapter, I discuss the success of the scheme against its aims of having these two agenda adopted in the classroom.

## **7.1 Candidates' decision to be certified**

Understanding teachers' decision procedure in terms of certification is important because their participation largely decides the success of the innovation. The themes identified for this initial phase of certification concerns access to relevant information and factors which affect their decisions, which will be discussed in turn in the following subsections.

### **7.1.1 Access to relevant information**

**Sources of information.** Based on conversations with candidate teachers and my experience as a teacher and member of a teacher association in this context, there are a number of ways in which teachers initially receive information about the TEE scheme, some official and some informal. One official route is from the Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education (SMOE) via a secured government-school online network system. Like any other information, the SMOE informs schools of

the scheme through a rather bureaucratic route: it sends relevant information to an administrator at individual schools, who forwards the notice to the deputy head, who in turn forwards it to relevant department heads and teachers in the department. Individual teachers have access to the information through their accounts on the online network system. The high volume of information that comes to teachers through this route and different commitments fighting for teachers' time and attention means that teachers have only a very short time to decide whether something is worth further reading, therefore raising the possibility that they make decisions on whether to participate in the scheme without fully understanding the nature and procedure of the certification. It is also possible that some of the teachers do not participate in the scheme because they do not understand it. In other words, the 'interpretation' of the scheme in Ball, Maguire and Braun's (2012, p. 12) terms, or decisions on how to respond to the scheme can be largely made within a very short time while they are quickly skimming through the information delivered online, which is not very desirable. For private schools, this government-school online system started to be adopted from 2010, and access to paper documents was more limited. Therefore, access to relevant information was more problematic for some teachers working at private schools.

The other official route is through reading the TEE manual: one copy of the manual was distributed to each school in late May 2010 (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2010a, p. 5). However, the number of teachers who have actually read this manual seems to be limited. In fact, one of the private school teachers in my study did not seem to be aware of its existence, and four of my other participants took the certificate before the manual was distributed. Part of the reason teachers did not know of this manual is that not so many teachers have the time to update themselves with the ever-expanding list of books distributed by the Educational Office. This matter of access to information has left some teachers to search for detailed information through unofficial routes, often with only moderate success. One such experience is discussed in section 7.4.2.

Teachers also hear about the scheme through unofficial routes such as an email list of teacher associations (I personally received the official document from the government through this mailing list), newspaper articles (there was a series of newspaper articles about the certification from 2008, one year before the scheme started), talks with colleagues (three participants mentioned this as one of their sources of information), participation in an on-line training (one participant), pressure from a supervisor (one participant and two non-participant teachers), and, finally, observation of, or hearsay about, other teachers who have obtained the certification (two participants).

***Accuracy of information.*** Different sources provide varying degrees of information about the certification, and therefore, the level of teachers' understanding of the assessment procedure may vary widely, depending on where a teacher has obtained the related information. For instance, the TEE manual (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2010d), which is 150 pages in length, presents very detailed information on the scheme: its purpose, its procedure, benefits for and future roles of TEE certified teachers, dates and venues of assessments, and the construct that is measured in the certification. It also explains key concepts to be assessed in the written test and provides practice test items. It explains, in detail, the procedure of the assessed lessons and provides support materials such as an observation schedule, standards, and sample lesson plans of assessed lessons which were graded as outstanding.

The official document about the certification which was distributed through the online network (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2009a) provides similar categories of information but the detail provided is rather limited by comparison. This is understandable because this document is less than eleven pages in length. For instance, information on the written test includes areas of the assessment and the sample items, but it does not provide preparation material for the test such as explanation of the key concepts. Also, information regarding the standards against

which the assessment is conducted is very vague compared with that of the TEE manual.

To illustrate, the TEE manual presents the following as competence descriptors measured by the scheme at the basic level (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2010d, p. 8):

- Language Ability

Able to run a lesson in English, grading the language to the levels of the learners and learning objectives, with the aim of developing learners' communicative competence.

- Teaching knowledge

Exhibits an understanding of language acquisition, approaches and methods to English language teaching, grammar, and pronunciation rules at the basic level and applies this to their lessons.

- Teaching practice

Able to run a well-organised, communication-centred lesson, where the students are led to actively participate in the learning activities, interact with other learners and produce spontaneous output. Able to develop a positive learning atmosphere and cope with various situations.

On the other hand, the measured competences are represented as follows in the official notice through the government-school online network (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2009a, p. 5):

- Written test/assessed lessons level-2 (TEE-A certification)

At this level, one can express one's opinion clearly and naturally in conducting lessons in English, and cope with various situations appropriately.

There is a stark contrast in the degree of detail provided between the two documents, and the information in the official document sent to individual

teachers misrepresents the competences measured in the TEE scheme. In the manual, the abilities measured are divided into three, language ability, teaching knowledge, and teaching practice. Also, the ability measured in the criteria for teaching practice reflects the policy discourse of the Ministry of Education about the need to build students' communicative competence (see 6.1 for details of such policies). However, the standard described in the official notice focuses on teachers' English proficiency and does not address other areas measured in the scheme, including the ability to develop students' communicative competence. In 2010, online training was offered to assist teachers with preparing for the certification procedure, but the content was limited to provision of expressions to be used in classrooms, which did not help teachers to adjust their misunderstanding of the focus of the assessed lessons.

It is regrettable that the official notice from which most teachers obtain information is incorrect, which creates the issue of fairness of the evaluation process and thus threatens validity. What is interesting to note is that even the information in the manual is not an exact representation of the actual competences that are measured by the TEE scheme. As a practical manual, it seems it chose economy over accuracy. (For accurate discussion of the areas of expertise measured, see sections 6.2.4 and 6.2.5.) The observations are in line with previous findings that teachers are often given ambiguous or conflicting information about educational innovations, which limits their understanding of them (Reio Jr, 2005).

Information from some unofficial sources may be even more limited and in some cases can even be inaccurate. For instance, in connection with TEE certification, a daily newspaper has reported that teachers are certified after they are assessed on their ability to speak, write, read, listen, and present in English ("영어교사 진짜 실력 가린다 [This reveals the real ability of English teachers]," 2009). In reality, there is no assessment of writing ability and the assessed lesson measures far more than teachers' ability to make presentations in English. The teachers may

or may not resort to newspapers to gather information about the scheme, but at least such inaccurate information forms the public opinion which constitutes the context in which this scheme is realised.

Different sources may also impart different attitudes toward the certification. As mentioned in Chapter 2, there are various English teacher associations in Korea, and different associations present information from different perspectives. For instance, the section on new educational policies in the webpage of *Seoul Jungdeung Yeongeo Gyogwa Gyoyuk Yeonguhoe* [the Secondary School English Teachers' Association] posts an official announcement of the TEE scheme by the SMOE (e.g., Jo, 2012), while the same section on the webpage of *Jeonguk Yeongeo Gyosa Moim* [the Korean English Teachers' Group] posts a critical essay of the initiative of using English as the medium of instruction (e.g. Nam, 2008). Due to these differences, teachers belonging to these different associations might form different opinions about participating in the certification.

This inconsistency in information available from different sources and the lack of assurance that all teachers have access to the source that provides accurate information threatens the reliability of the TEE scheme as discussed in 4.3.6. To illustrate the point, teachers who prepared for the certification after reading the TEE manual including Anny, exhibited a clear understanding of the aims and assessment criteria, and prepared for the assessments accordingly without difficulty. These teachers knew, for instance, that both English proficiency and the ability to promote students' communicative competence were assessed during the assessed lessons and tried to meet both requirements. On the other hand, Felicity, who prepared for it only after reading the official notices which present rather sketchy information, understood the assessed lessons as focusing on teachers' English proficiency and natural flow of the lesson, and was penalised, failing to obtain the certificate in the first attempt. Felicity also reports the case of her colleague who failed the assessed lesson three times because she did not know of this criterion until a regional supervisor pointed this out for her. Thus, the



fact that the official document does not provide sufficient information raises serious concerns with regard to fairness and reliability of the scheme, two important quality criteria for sound teacher evaluation (Peterson & Peterson, 1984; Stronge & Tucker, 2003).

### **7.1.2 Factors that influence teachers' decisions to be certified**

Out of twelve teachers interviewed, Janet and Maria said they would not be certified, Jack and Emily said they do not plan to be for now, and the remaining eight were either going through the certification process or were already certified. Teachers' accounts of their decisions about whether or not to become certified show that various factors influence their decisions, including contextual limitations and their beliefs about various issues. Also, they make their decisions after considering different aspects at the same time; therefore, typically they give more than one reason for their respective decisions. For instance, Maria, a teacher who decided not to be certified, gave multiple reasons for her lack of engagement with the scheme including the contextual limitations, her beliefs about context and her beliefs about the scheme, which will be discussed below. Also, she first intended to be certified and later changed her mind. This indecision regarding participation in the scheme is observed in other participants such as Felicity and Emily, which illustrates the complexity of teachers' engagement with government-led innovations.

The first major factor teachers consider when deciding whether or not to participate in the certification is the actual context they are in. For instance, all teachers who work at private schools, Stefan, Jack, and Felicity, consider whether certification relates to their job security, reflecting the fact that the school has the authority to discharge a teacher. As another example, one of the reasons Maria gave was her supervisors' opposition to her participating in after-school teacher training, which is necessary for her to build up the prerequisite TEE index mandated for certification. She was asked to commit to her current roles in school instead.

However, most of the reasons given show that teachers were acting upon their beliefs about or perceptions of the context, rather than objective features of the context. To illustrate, the two teachers who work at private schools, Stefan and Jack, made different decisions on participation in the scheme: while Stefan chose to be certified, Jack chose not to. Stefan, whose colleagues have been laid off due to curricular changes, chose to be certified because he vicariously experienced the insecurity of his job, whereas Jack who feels he is trusted by colleagues and has a close relationship with the vice-chairperson of the school board to the degree of referring to her as “an aunt” (Research diary, December 15, 2010), feels that his job is secure.

Maria’s following comment is another example which illustrates the influence of teachers’ beliefs about the context on their engagement with the certification. When asked about her general opinions of different teacher evaluation schemes during the second interview, Maria says:

...because the school becomes ever busier, it doesn’t work to add more and more [initiatives]. [New initiatives] may work if they take away things we already are doing, but now things just keep being added. The tasks that we already have to do remain, and we are told “More, more, this too, and that too.” This is why [the TEE] is meaningless. What can we do? When there is no physical time and motivation... (Maria 2: 104)

She feels that there is already too much to deal with but the government adds innovations one after another so she does not have physical or motivational room to engage with it. This theme of lack of room is repeated during the interview. She previously mentioned that she has to create many documents, reflecting the fact that there are too many initiatives that some have to be done perfunctorily. This policy overload is also mentioned by Felicity, Sam and Stefan. (The many recent innovations that have been issued in the context were described in Chapter 2.)

Teachers' beliefs about the scheme also affect their engagement with it. For instance, Maria and Janet, who said they would not be certified, do not feel the need to do so because they think the certification will be abolished:

Researcher: Sem<sup>18</sup>, well, the, TEE, you heard of this.

Maria: I didn't do TEE [certification].

Researcher: So you heard of it.

Maria: Is it being abolished? (Maria 2: 89 - 92)

Irving: I was trying to motivate her [to be certified], but I think I should be more persistent.

Janet: But the system, I heard, will soon disappear, so should I really do it? (Irving, Anny & Janet: 199, 200)

Opting not to go through a potentially stressful assessment procedure seems a reasonable decision if teachers think the system will not last. In fact, it is not rare for a policy to be abolished or to disappear quietly in the Korean educational context, where a considerable number of new policies are constantly designed and added, as in the English context (Ball, Maguire, Braun, et al., 2012, p. 9; Gibton, 2011). However, there is no plan to abolish the scheme<sup>19</sup>, which shows that the perception is rather subjective.

For those who have decided to be certified, their decisions are related to different aspects of their identity such as their professional goals (e.g., to teach better, to

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<sup>18</sup> Sem is a Korean term used as an informal way of addressing a teacher who is close to oneself.

<sup>19</sup> The scheme will be revised to be a scheme to develop leader English teachers from 2015.

be recognised for their expertise, and to advance their career) and others' perceptions of them (e.g., to be evaluated as a competent teacher), confirming Kubanyiova's (2009) finding that those who can personally relate to the induced changes participate in them. The following two excerpts are representative samples of each category of reasons.

What I had in my mind when I first applied was that I might want to do the Master Teacher - because I had been a teaching consultant - if I cannot succeed in being promoted [to be a deputy head teacher]. If I have the Master level certificate, it might prove advantageous to being a Master Teacher. (Rima 2: 35)

In this situation, the [TEE] certificate divides teachers who have English proficiency and those who don't: A [basic level-certified], Non-A [not-certified] (Stefan 2: 27)

Rima relates the certification to advancing her career, the professional goal she has been pursuing for many years; Stefan relates it with others' evaluation of his English proficiency. In Kubanyiova's (ibid.) term, these teachers relate being certified to their 'ideal self' such as their professional goals and avoiding 'feared self', that is, being branded as an incompetent person. The fact that the reasons given are related to their identity is also in line with observations made by Ball et al. (2012). They liken participation in policy process to writing the policies onto bodies of the participants (p. 3), with participants placing themselves in a specific personal relationship with regards to the policy.

A rather unexpected aspect mentioned in relation to others' views of them is images attached to becoming advanced in age. Four candidates relate the certification to fighting the stigmatisation of their being advanced in years. One candidate commented that many senior teachers' motivation relates to proving their competences to the younger teachers; that is, they are as good as the young teachers so they should not be devalued. I will discuss this in detail, because this is specific to the Korean context.

Through further probing I found that this motivation related to perceptions about aging, or the view that 'old' English teachers are incompetent, held both by the society and by English teachers themselves. I myself was aware of this prejudice against 'old' teachers from my experience of being an English teacher in this context. Senior teachers are stereotyped as being stagnant, having less productive English skills compared with 'young' teachers. They are associated with traditional teaching styles which are characterised by explanation of grammar points and line-by-line translation, rather than the 'communicative' way characterised by learner-centred activities and using English as the medium of instruction, which is promoted by the government.

These areas of stereotyping regarding competences of senior teachers are evident in the account of Jack, one of the teacher participants:

[TEE certification] should concern those who came into the profession 20 years ago, or those who are over 45 years old, to [check] once more whether or not they have kept up with self-development as well as with teaching methodology in order to improve their teaching ability, to examine whether or not they have maintained, renewed, and advanced themselves for these areas; for it to function meaningfully. (Jack 2-1: 94)

In this extract Jack mentions professional development and teaching methodology as the areas that he believes teachers who came into the profession a considerable time ago need to work on. He adds another area:

[TEE certification] may work if [the SMOE] selects those who need retraining and send those abroad for training or something like that, among those old teachers. Look now, those who go to Delaware or such places, they are all young, and fluent in English. (Jack 2-2: 1)

In this extract, Jack mentions the teacher training programme which is run by the SMOE. To meet ever increasing demand on English language teachers in terms of their language proficiency from the learners and the parents, the SMOE has been

sending teachers to English-speaking countries such as the US and the UK, which is why Jack is mentioning Delaware. He is upset because of what happens with this overseas training. Originally planned to help teachers with less English proficiency, possibly 'old' teachers, these training opportunities are taken up by 'young' teachers because of high competition. He compares the English proficiency of 'young' and 'old' teachers, and links youth with fluency in English. Jack's comments reflect the common discourse about 'old' teachers, their suspected downshifting in terms of professional development, lack of knowledge of new teaching methodology and limited English proficiency.

Interestingly, nowhere in the documents related to the TEE scheme is expressed this deficit view of senior teachers, although this view was expressed once by one of the policy makers who participated in drafting the scheme whom I will only refer to as a policymaker:

... those who are below [the level to be able to develop the ability to conduct lesson in English through the TEE certification] they could do the certification, if they want; otherwise, because most of them are old, so those who are over 55, they are to take on tasks such as the department head teacher, which leads to less contact hours with students... (Policymaker 1: 10'18"-10'38")

This deficit discourse, however, can be inferred from major policies related to English education. For example, the Ministry of Education's (MOE) concern about maintaining competences of senior English teachers can be inferred from documents on teacher training. The MOE announced its plan to make it compulsory for English teachers to go through training every five years, with the main focus on their English proficiency and on skills of teaching and assessment (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2005a, p. 15).

The policies on communicative teaching and using English as the medium of teaching including the TEE scheme have created a new context which marginalises teachers' abilities which were previously appreciated, such as prescriptive grammatical knowledge and knowledge of test-taking skills, which in turn

contributed to the deficit discourse about senior teachers. This is a second order effect in Ball's (2006) term, changes on patterns of opportunity and social justice. The impact of the scheme including this contextual change will be further discussed in Chapter 8.

In sum, the discussion in this section shows that teachers' engagement with the scheme is influenced by interaction between the actual context they are in, teachers' beliefs and perceptions about the context and the scheme, and their identity.

## **7.2 TEE index system**

The TEE index is a record of teachers' professional development. As discussed in 6.3.1, those applying for TEE certification have to obtain the prerequisite TEE points before they apply to be certified through engaging in various developmental activities such as attending teacher training programmes. For the first two rounds of certification, candidates had to verify their TEE index score with the head and deputy head teachers at their school before registering for the written test (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2010b). However, since August 2010, the verification procedure starts only after a teacher has passed the written test. This change was made due to previous candidates' complaint that it is a public humiliation to inform the school of the application through the verification process only to then fail the written test (Hazel, Nov. 17, 2010, Field note vol. II, p.17). The SMOE required the index score before the written test initially, probably because it had not thought through cases of failure. This practice of adding details or revising them is very common in policy process (Ball, Maguire, Braun, et al., 2012, p. 3).

Some teachers in my study already had a high enough index score to be certified for the advanced level when the certification started. For instance, Rima, a current possessor of Master (advanced) level certificate, had attended enough hours of teacher training, and had participated in various professional development

activities, such as writing teaching resources and training teachers for SMOE, to obtain the required professional development scores for the level (Rima 2: 25, 27, 29, 33). There were 535 other teachers who were ready and who applied to be certified (Chosunilbo, 2009), out of over 5,000 English language teachers<sup>20</sup> in Seoul who have relevance to this scheme: these teachers registered for the first written test about two weeks after the certification was announced.

Others, however, had to build up the index score to be certified. Because the certification requires considerable hours of training - 150 hours of training for the basic level certificate and 280 hours for the advanced level certificate, some found it greatly demanding or simply unfeasible. Unfavourable circumstances at work or at home proved to be barriers to building up the score. For instance, teachers in charge of third year senior high school students and/or a homeroom found it extremely challenging to meet the prerequisite index scores. Janet's experience explains why:

... As you know, [teaching third year senior high school students] you cannot attend any training. During the vacation, you have to teach extra-curricular sessions; [during term-time] the school finishes late and then again you teach extra-curricular sessions. So I kept missing all the training sessions that I was entitled to for my career... (Irving, Anny & Janet: 108)

Here Janet describes the specificity of the Korean school context. Teaching third year senior high entails other duties, such as extracurricular sessions, which overlap with the time when teacher training programmes run. The extra-curricular sessions that Janet comments on are lessons offered by many high schools on the core subjects, i.e., Korean, English, and Math. These sessions are not part of the ordinary curriculum; however, since most students choose at least two of these subjects at the national college entrance exam, each school is expected to offer

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<sup>20</sup> There are about 6,700 English teachers in Seoul; however, this scheme is required for those who have permanent contracts.



these courses to help students raise their score in these subjects. Students want the sessions to be taught by teachers who are currently teaching the third year because these teachers are up to date with the ever-changing focus of the annual national college entrance exam. Considering that these sessions are run after school and during the breaks, when most teacher training sessions are offered, it is out of the question for these teachers to attend them.

In addition to some duties at schools, personal obligations at home may be a hindrance to teachers' attending enough hours of training. Emily describes how one teacher at her school is bound by her circumstances:

...the other teacher has two children and they are of an age where they need a lot of attention, so right after school, she has to take care of the children, because of that reason. Some workers at companies may ask why not. But because our salary is not that much, so we cannot hire babysitters as we want. Here the situation is a bit different, different from that of the teachers whom I met at Gangnam [well-off] area. All of these teachers, they do not hire babysitters and go right back home to take care of the children, there are quite a number of such teachers in this school. (Emily 1: 73, 74)

The need to go home immediately to take care of the children after school makes attending any training or other professional activities unthinkable. Because they are not able to participate in those activities, teachers in similarly challenging circumstances are prevented from taking part in the certification scheme. This way, the prerequisite inadvertently disadvantages some teachers under specific circumstances, which raises issues of fairness, one aspect of validity as discussed in Chapter 4.

This challenging requirement may seem counterintuitive; however, to trace the beginning of this certification makes this requirement understandable. In fact, the TEE system was originally designed for two purposes: as a self-diagnosis system to help teachers identify areas to work on and as a tool to select teachers who are ready to train other teachers to conduct TEE lessons. However, with personnel

changes in the educational policy department, the system has evolved to be an assessment scheme, although many previous elements of the scheme remained, including the index system which was originally instituted for selecting lead teachers who were ready. April, a previous supervisor says of this change:

...what I suggested was a self-diagnosis system through which one can diagnose whether or not one can do a TEE lesson, then make a plan to do training. "I will take such and such training to be able to conduct TEE lessons by 2012.", then the educational office will support the teacher to take such training...and through that data base, if one has proved that one can do TEE lessons, say, through an open lesson, then they were to be certified through the record....But the research team has distorted the original intention of the system, and what's more, the current division head liked the idea of certification...with the certification system, it was decided that all should be certified. (April 1-1: 14, 16)

Meg Maguire, a co-developer of the policy enactment theory, notes that changes in the nature of a policy due to changes in personnel are often commented on by participants in policy research even though there is little literature available (personal communication, March 13, 2012). Such changes may result from the fact that different people notice different aspects of a policy, and respond to, and execute the policy differently (Spillane, 2004, p. 61).

On problems created this way, Felicity suggests a solution. That is, people in different circumstances should be allowed to participate in the certification, and the index system should not be a hindrance to that:

Therefore, the [system] should be flexible. One should require training hours after ensuring that it is possible to receive training, but the circumstances don't allow it. Of course some didn't get training because they were not enthusiastic, and different people think of the situation differently, but it should be that those who want [certification] should be allowed to participate in it... (Felicity 2: 1)

This TEE index requirement may encourage teachers under favourable circumstances to participate in the activities and result in professional

development; however, according to some participants, the index system should loosen up the requirement considering that some cannot participate in such activities for unavoidable reasons, not because of their lack of interest in their development.

### **7.3 Written test**

The written test, English Teaching Knowledge Test (ETKT), aims to measure pedagogical knowledge needed in conducting English lessons, but it measures declarative knowledge rather than procedural knowledge as discussed in section 6.3.2. The test runs twice a year; it consists of 80 items, and most of them are true-false questions and multiple choice questions, except for the two open-end items. Candidates of both levels take the same test: to be eligible for the beginner level certification, the candidate should have 60% or more correct, and for the advanced level, 75% or more correct.

The SMOE announces the dates of the test which is conducted twice a year through the government-school network at the beginning of the year using the type of official notice discussed in section 7.1.1, which informs teachers of the procedure and dates, as well as the objectives and the benefits of taking the test. After this, the procedure is also advertised at the English language education section of the website of SMOE (<http://see.sen.go.kr/notice/board.do?bcfNo=603470>). A reminder about the test is sent approximately three weeks before the assessment through the government-school network. Some details are added to this reminder, such as the duration of the assessment being 50 minutes (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2009b). Such information is sometimes sent by a teacher to other teachers who belong to the same teacher association.

At the beginning of the implementation of the TEE scheme, if a teacher decided to take the test, the teacher would have to apply to the SMOE during the one week-long registration period and the SMOE would then inform schools of the list of

applicants who had met the TEE index and were thus eligible to take the written test (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2009b). However, as discussed in the previous section, in response to teachers' complaints, since August 2010, the teachers simply apply for the test online without informing the school of their application. Teachers take the test at a designated place such as a university or a business centre. Four days after the test, the applicants are supposed to be informed of the results (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2009b) but some teachers indicate that the report of the test results were sometimes delayed, which distressed some teachers (Hazel, Nov. 17, 2010, Field note Vol. II, p.20).

In terms of preparation for this test, Felicity reports that some teachers ask their close colleagues to apply to, and prepare for, the test together; however, she also states that most candidates, particularly in secondary schools where the certification is perceived as an unnecessary imposition, hide their application from other teachers and thus prepare for the test alone. She even said some teachers brand the candidates participating in the certification as "brainless creatures compliant to the policies of the educational offices" (Felicity 5: 38), reflecting the general negative perception of the scheme, which might have contributed to teachers' limited participation in the scheme, as will be discussed in the next chapter.

The SMOE provides some preparation materials for the written test through the TEE manual, which includes a summary of the relevant concepts and practice test items. The SMOE also provides an online training programme which consists of online lectures and self-test items; evaluation of the usefulness of this training varies. However, teachers also use other materials such as books they have studied during their BA about language teaching theories (Felicity 5:10) or some materials such as glossaries from MA studies (Rima 2:93). Teachers' choice of these theoretical materials is in line with the commonly reported perception of the test being theoretical. This perception is based on the sample questions that were available to teachers through the official notice of the written test and the

TEE manual. Candidates reported sharing these unofficial materials with like-minded teachers.

For the rest of the assessment procedure, the experience of the Ace (basic) level and Master (advanced) level candidates will be reported separately because they differ considerably. The basic level candidates only go through the assessed lesson before they are certified, while advanced level candidates go through a speaking test, a training programme which involves some assessment, and then the final assessed lesson at their own schools. The experience of the basic level applicants will be discussed first in section 7.4, then discussion of the advanced level will follow in 7.5.

#### **7.4 Ace (basic) level assessments after the written test**

Teaching observation is an important component of the assessment procedure for the basic level certification because the decision about certification of candidates is solely based on a single observed and assessed microteaching, once they have successfully met the prerequisite TEE index score and passed the written test. The assessment is announced at the beginning of the year in an official notice circulated through the government-school network, which provides information about the assessment procedures and the approximate dates when assessments will be held. The notice also provides some explanation about what is being assessed, but in rather vague terms. That is, it says the assessment focuses on English proficiency and the ability to run lessons in English, but does not inform the fact that one important focus of the evaluation is on its communicative orientation; this issue of access to accurate information about the assessment providing students opportunities to use English was problematised in 7.1.1.

The details of realisation of the assessed lessons will be discussed in the following three sections, in terms of teachers' preparation for them in 7.4.1 and the assessment itself in 7.4.2 - 7.4.4.

### 7.4.1 Preparation for the assessed lesson

Two out of the four participants, Felicity and Stefan, who applied for the basic level, discuss the issue of access to the information in relation to the assessed lesson. For instance, when I asked about the source and type of information she obtained before the assessed lesson, Felicity said that she did not have any information about the content of the assessment, so she could not prepare anything for the lesson. She reported that on the day of assessment all candidates received a piece of advice - let students do lots of things, and that she interpreted this as promoting communicative skills. When I further probed about the specific information she obtained before the assessed lesson, she added:

Felicity: I heard of a clear instruction on the day of the assessment. Before then, I think I inquired of the process either to a supervisor or a previous candidate. The instructions were not written on the official notice. On the notice, only the schedule was written, "30 minute preparation and 20 minute demo lesson". I inquired roughly what I should do, and the person let me know.

Researcher: So you learned of it being communication-centred on the day and did not have any information before the assessment?

Felicity: Not at all. (Felicity 5: 58-60)

She had to seek relevant information through an unofficial route but what she learned of was "roughly what [she] should do" and, as she mentions in the second turn in the extract above she still did not have any idea about the focus of the assessment, that is, communication-centeredness, nor was she given the observation schedule. This perception of insufficient information available is shared by another participant, Stefan. Both of these teachers work at private schools and, as anticipated in section 7.1.1, access to information was a challenge for these two teachers. This shows that the realisation process can change the quality of assessment. While the scheme rightly incorporated a measure to counteract the subjectivity of observation through deciding the focus of the

observation beforehand, in line with Gebhard's (1999) suggestion, this was not effectively realised.

Anny, a teacher who works at a state school, however, reports a rather more positive experience:

16. Researcher: ...Did [the administrators of the assessment] not inform you of the rubrics? They only mentioned that students should communicate, but nothing else?
17. Anny: The rubric, the educational office's. "Is the objective well presented?" "Are the activities student-centred?" These are on the observation schedule.
18. Researcher: You received [the observation schedule]?
19. Anny: No, it was not given to us officially, but it's in the TEE manual.
20. Researcher: Ah, on the TEE manual.
21. Anny: Yes, on the manual. The teachers find it on their own. Anyway, when we went there, they said "Teachers shouldn't talk much, the students should talk much." And in the official announcement for the application for the TEE-A certificate, the evaluation criteria were included.
22. Researcher: Ah, the rubric was almost given.
23. Irving: It was at the back of the book.
24. Anny: At the back of the book, it's open, to everybody. (Irving & Anny: 16-24)

Even though the observation schedule was not "officially" given to the candidates (turn 19), she still could "find [the TEE manual] on [her] own" (turn 21), and it seems that she did not find the search difficult. Also, although she says that the observation schedule was included in the official document, none of the official notices that were issued during 2009 and 2010 had it: they only had the table to calculate the TEE index and the sample items for the written test. Anny's easy

access may partly have been due to Irving's support and partly due to the fact that she is the head of the English division who receives all subject-related documents and publications from the Office of Education, including the TEE manual distributed earlier in the year. In addition, I myself may have affected her experience because I informed her of the exact procedure of the assessment when I heard another candidate provide inaccurate information to her. Although it was the kind of information which a teacher who has gone through the certification could easily share, this incident made me realise that I did not consistently maintain my position as a non-participant researcher throughout my research. However, as I discussed in Chapter 5, the benefits of having insider knowledge and direct experience of the context far outweighed the shortcomings.

The lack of access to information about the content of assessed lessons for some teachers like Stefan and Felicity poses problems in validity, reliability, and usability. First, the fairness, one important aspect of validity as discussed in Chapter 4, was breached through unequal access to sufficient information about the scheme. Second, the focus of observation was not communicated effectively to all participants, threatening reliability. Third, despite the fact that the expected teaching style is very different from the teaching style commonly used in Korean schools, which is generally more teacher centred and consists of grammar explanation and practice activities, the scheme fails to provide the opportunity for some teachers to familiarise themselves with teaching styles that promote students' communicative competence, thus, falling short of the usability criteria.

#### **7.4.2 Assessed lesson**

This assessment is to measure teachers' abilities to conduct lessons in a communicative way using English as the medium of instruction. The specificities of this assessment seem to have been worked out as the certification procedure progressed. Details were not provided in the documents published initially, and information was added to the documents published later, such as notes to the assessors, or it was announced at the assessment site. The discussion in the



following three sections, 7.4.3 - 7.4.4, is based on notes to the assessors and interviews with candidates and assessors of Ace (basic) level. It is also based on the post-event report which was submitted to the SMOE by the assessment centre in charge of the secondary level certificate, which includes information on the procedure of assessed lessons, an observation schedule for assessed lessons, and results (TEE training team, 2011). The procedure will be reported from the candidates' perspective in section 7.4.3, and from the assessors' perspective in section 7.4.4.

### **7.4.3 Assessed lesson: Candidates' perspective**

**Assessment.** The information on the assessment process from the candidate's perspective is based on interviews with two current candidates, Anny and Stefan, and two previously certified participants, Felicity and Hazel. Candidates meet at the assessment centre and pick lots to decide on the order in which they will be assessed. They then go to a planning room where they are given a reading text which is chosen by the supervisor who runs the assessment. They are also given instructions on the lesson. The requirement to teach one grammatical item from the text was the same across all rounds, and the changing requirements include teaching a reading skill or functions which the candidates chose from the text. All participants mentioned that they were given oral instruction that the lesson should be student-centred, thus students should do things rather than the instructor. Some candidates received additional information, such as the chosen grammatical item should be taught throughout the lesson. The preparation time was 30 minutes at the initial sitting, but was extended to 60 minutes in the following sittings of assessment. At the end of the preparation time, the teachers go to a waiting room to wait for their turns. When it is their turn, candidates are given the materials they have prepared. They enter the assessment room wearing a serial number on their chest, which some participants describe as unnerving.

Having over one hundred applicants to assess in each sitting, the junior and senior high school teachers are assessed on different dates, each time about 50 people

being assessed. In about ten rooms assessment is conducted simultaneously. Five candidates are assigned to one assessment room, where these candidates teach the pool of students. Each candidate brings two students to the site, which means that when each candidate is teaching the class, there will be two students they know and eight others who they probably do not know because they are brought by the other candidates. Since all candidates of the day are given the same text, the students study from the same material five times with different teachers.

Three assessors - one head or deputy head with English subject teaching experience, one academic from the English education department at a university or a subject supervisor, and one native-speaking English teacher (NEST) - assess the lesson and decide whether or not they will pass the candidate. Once the candidates finish their teaching, they submit all the materials they have prepared including the lesson plan, although the lesson plan is not assessed.

The candidates find the moment of assessment very stressful. Felicity, a current candidate for the advanced level certificate, previously Ace (basic) level certified, reports being assessed with the number on as really stressful because it reminds her of the seriousness of the occasion (Felicity, Nov. 13, 2010, Field note vol. I, p.59). In addition to its formality, the artificiality of the situation makes it still more stressful. As described above, the candidates are required to teach students, most of whom they are meeting for the first time, without having the opportunity to build any rapport. Due to this artificiality, it was difficult for teachers to engage students in the lesson. Hazel, another advanced level candidate who also had previously obtained the Ace (basic) level certificate reports that some teachers were really baffled by the students' lack of responsiveness, and that she herself had to call her own students' names to receive responses from them (Hazel, Nov. 17, 2010, Field note vol. II, p.17). Rima, an assessor, also notes the difficulties teachers go through because of the unnatural arrangement regarding student participants:

When this assessment was conducted at the X University, the candidates had only

those three students that they brought in [to engage with]. They couldn't make [other] students participate because they didn't know the name of the students. They strive with those new students, but the kids look at the teacher as if they are looking at monkeys [at the zoo] (Rima 2: 135).

I was able to get a sense of what the participant students were feeling or doing during the assessment through some candidates' accounts of comments from the students they have brought to the assessment site after the event. Some students were bored because they had to attend several lessons on the same material (Anny 3: 53), and they were comparing and unofficially evaluating candidate teachers (Anny 3: 53; Hazel, Nov. 17, 2010, Field note vol. II, p.17). These accounts match teachers' perception of the unresponsiveness of the students and their attitude as spectators toward the candidate teachers.

The format of the assessed lesson was probably designed to ensure comparability of the assessment procedure across the candidates. For instance, all teachers were given the same amount of preparation time, 60 minutes, and the content of the material to be taught was not announced before the assessed lesson. However, in reality, even this extreme measure did not ensure comparability. For instance, those candidates who were assessed in the last time slot would have had extra two and half hours to work further on planning the lesson in their minds. On the other hand, it is easy to predict that the students would become more bored and less lively toward the end of the day because they were taught the same materials again and again by different teachers; giving one pre-selected text to all candidates cannot make it comparable because some candidates might have pre-knowledge of the topic. This arrangement, which may have looked reliable and valid at the design phase by non-teachers, did not turn out to be so in the realised scheme, which led teachers to view the assessment as "putting on a show" (Stefan 2: 29; Maria 1-1: 98). To Stefan, what is measured in this assessment is "the ability to pretend that one is experienced in what one has not done as well as the ability to improvise something with limited resources within a short amount of

time.” (personal communication, March 18, 2013, paragraphs 5). His perception challenges the construct validity of assessment of lessons at this level.

From another perspective, however, the assessment has some criterion-related validity. Two current Ace (basic) level candidates, Anny and Stefan, say that they used activities they use in their usual classroom. Also, these candidates exhibit their grasp of the type of activities that are expected in the assessment. This is noticeable when Anny relates her plan for the assessed lesson:

If they give me a reading passage, what I usually do is, divide the students into two groups, and if the A's read, B's do the fill-in-the-blanks - since the kids cannot talk [in English], [I will use] some activities that they can do just through reading the passage. Also, I will give three comprehension questions and then one reads and the other answers them. After that, we check the answers together as a whole class activity. After that, I ask them to make T/F questions and then give points when they do it...Otherwise, ranking activities, on whatever topic. For instance, if the topic is sports players, rank 1 through 5. “Who is your favourite player?” I rank the first and the last [as examples], and give points when they participate. (Anny and Irving: 59, 61)

Other than the structure of her lesson, that is, a lesson organised around activities, which is typical of many teachers' lesson planning (Brown, 1988), the content of these activities is notable. Anny's account hinges around enabling or encouraging student participation. Although student participation does not reflect all the capabilities measured by the TEE scheme, at least this is the one criterion commonly mentioned in different resources about the assessed lesson. This feature of student engagement in the activity as well as reference to the usual lessons shows in another A-level candidate, Stefan's recall of the assessed lesson:

... I thought 'I will do what I usually do'. So I cut the text into two paragraphs, warmed the students up with the key words, made them guess the topic sentences that I cut out of the text, then let them listen to [the text] once, and asked the students to rearrange the sentences to re-build the two paragraphs.

But the kids were lost because it was the first session, and I said “Different colours!” Then I summarised through a graphic organizer, and said, although the individual themes are this and that, the theme of the whole text is that we need creative play, and then finished the demo [assessed] lesson... Then finally I taught the target language. Yes, a totally irrelevant one to the text: “prefer A to B”, comparatives. Given an ordinary phone and an iPhone, to talk about preference of different functions... (Stefan 2: 55, 59, 61).

The narrative shows that Stefan provided students with something tangible to engage with, in this case pieces of the text. He also chose a topic that most students have something to say about, cell phones. When the students could not follow his direction, he used the tool he built in the lesson material, colours of the text to reengage the students. To me this indicates that Stefan had a good understanding of, and capability to meet the requirement of the 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> evaluation criteria, that students are actively involved in tasks and that students’ utterances or output during the tasks are “active and spontaneous”, and “creative and authentic.” (See Appendix 18 for the schedule).

The narratives by the basic level candidates show the difficulty of predicting quality of teacher evaluation in the planning stage. Some qualities of the evaluation scheme, i.e., criterion-related validity, evolved as planned; others, such as comparability across candidates and construct validity, were not fully realised. This finding supports the need to include a revision phase in any evaluation scheme as recommended in Stronge and Tucker (2003) in order to examine whether or not the scheme draws out relevant abilities of teachers as planned.

**Post-assessment conference.** None of the official documents distributed to the candidates indicate that there will be a post-assessment conference; therefore, candidates may participate in this procedure without knowing of it beforehand. According to candidates during my interviews with them, different candidates perceived its purpose differently. For instance, Felicity perceived its purpose as measuring the fluency of candidates. Her perception was based on the topics

discussed during the post-assessment conference. She thought the chosen topics such as educational philosophy, goals as an English teacher and their personal view of the best way to teach English were too general, and the assessors did not ask for details. Thus, she did not think this conference could serve a specific purpose other than measuring English proficiency (Felicity 5: 66). Stefan, on the other hand, linked it with the assessment of the lesson, because the questions were about the specific instructional choices during the assessed lessons and the degree they match the usual lessons<sup>21</sup> (Stefan 2: 63, 67). In fact, Stefan's perception about the questions asked in his assessment room match the original purpose of this post-assessment conference, because the official document distributed to assessors clarifies the purpose of this interview as "supplementary inquiry of the questions that arose during observation" (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2011f).

The fact that different kinds of questions were asked and the participants perceived their purposes differently again raises the issue of reliability, which is corroborated by remarks by Stefan. Stefan raises the issue of reliability based on his unique knowledge gained from comparing the post-assessment conferences with two colleagues who were assessed on the same day at the same centre. He concludes about the assessed lesson as follows: "There is a rubric, but the way the rubric is interpreted differs from room to room. So we don't know who passed. We don't know what is right (Stefan 2: 85)." The inconsistent use of the post-assessment conference also threatens validity: provision of opportunities to discuss their practice during the observation is a measure to ensure the criterion-validity as discussed in section 4.3.5. Assessors' views of the conference procedure will be discussed in the following section.

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<sup>21</sup> This issue of the assessed lesson reflecting a normal lesson is a recurrent theme across candidates and evaluators in this chapter. It will be picked up again in the next chapter.

#### 7.4.4 Assessed lesson: Assessors' perspective

**Assessment.** In this section I discuss findings based on the following data I collected: practical documents related to the scheme produced during and after the certification by different institutes (e.g., notes to the assessors); interviews with candidates of both levels, assessors of the basic level, and a policy maker who drafted the TEE policy for the SMOE; the report on the certification procedure and results submitted to the SMOE, which includes the marks given to each candidate for different assessments including the assessed lessons and written comments on the lessons from the assessors. I collated all this data in order to understand the exact procedure realised.

According to the report on the certification (TEE training team, 2011, p. 25), the procedure was as follows. Assessors were asked to do a preliminary assessment while they were observing the 20-minute assessed lesson, making notes. After the lesson, they conduct a five-minute interview with the candidate, and then after the candidate leaves, they decide their marks and their individual evaluative comments during five-minute discussion time. At the end of the day, the assessors submit individual and team mark sheets to the centre. Those teachers who receive 60 out of 100 pass the assessment, and thus receive certification.

According to April, the previous supervisor at the English education policy division (personal communication, February 1, 2012, paragraphs 2, 3) and Rima, one of the interviewed assessors (Rima 2: 3), the assessors were convened one hour before the assessment and briefly trained on how to assess the lessons on the day of the assessment, which seems rather insufficient considering the significance of this assessment for the certification. Because of the consequences, both in terms of their career development and of their confidence, it is a high-stake exam; therefore, more thorough training of the assessors is demanded. This brevity of the training seems to have contributed to the issues of reliability which were raised by the participants about the assessed lessons.

On the information assessors received, Rima says that assessors were instructed to focus on the degree to which the teacher engages students in activities and builds communicative competence through those activities, rather than on candidates' English fluency. She says:

I heard that this was said to the candidates. "Since the length of the assessment is 20 minutes and it's short, some teachers explain what they will do in a 45 minute [regular] lesson. "I will do this to teach this, etc." But do not do this, and focus on the key points - how to make students do activities. Focus on today's lesson objective, and in what ways I will make students practice and build up communicative competence."

So we were instructed to focus on finding out teachers, with even relatively limited English, who help students acquire and uptake [English], and who teach English through English properly, rather than teachers who summarize their lessons with fluent English. (Rima 2: 9, 11)

The assessors were well informed of the core aim of the scheme, promoting students' communicative competence (as discussed in section 2.8) and measuring candidates' ability to achieve the aim. However, the following dialogue shows that there was no discussion of the individual criteria in the observation schedule among assessors; therefore, the degree to which inter-rater reliability was achieved is not clear:

Researcher: ...Then did you discuss the rubric?

Rima: Roughly this was what we heard. "Such and such are the foci of the assessment." We viewed short video clips of lessons, [and were asked] "What mark should be given for this lesson according to this rubric?" "Please do not hurt feelings of teachers if possible." There was such discussion.

Researcher: Ah, you were shown video clips. Within that short time, one hour, it was possible.

Rima: The clips were short, short, not long. Only the key parts were shown briefly.



Anyway, we entered [the assessment room] after reaching some consensus. (Rima 2: 4 -7)

To my question whether or not there was discussion of the individual criteria, Rima answers that assessors were shown several video clips to standardise the assessment referring to the observation schedule, and the team of assessors built “some consensus” before the assessment. Throughout her description of the instructions given, she only mentions general principles, for instance, focus on the involvement of the students and not on teachers’ English proficiency. She does not discuss the details of the observation schedule, for instance, the students’ utterances should be “active and spontaneous” and a variety of activities and interaction patterns should exist. This suggests that assessors might not have opportunities to familiarise themselves with individual criteria, thus raising the possibility that their understanding of the scheme was rather limited. The performance of the assessors in terms of marking specific pedagogic activities will be discussed in section 7.5.7, which deals with assessed lessons of the advanced level certification, which I observed and about which I have access to assessors’ evaluative comments. There is another interesting aspect about what Rima recalls about the guidelines for the assessors. It is the fact that the assessors were cautioned against hurting the feelings of the candidates. This shows that the SMOE is also aware of the emotional distress that the candidates go through which will be discussed in detail in the next chapter.

Another point to note is that there were no particular efforts for standardising the assessment across the teams. About the issue of the reliability across the assessment room, Rima wrote in her email:

Also, there was a considerable variation amongst the assessor team leaders, from ones considerate of teachers who undergo assessment under the difficult condition, to the ones to closely adhere to the observation schedule. (Rima 1, Paragraph 7)

This difference perceived by Rima corroborates the lack of inter-rater reliability perceived by Stefan, one of the basic level candidates, which led him to distrust the scheme (a point discussed in the previous section).

Kitty, another assessor, raises another issue in relation to reliability: she reports that the training for assessors was not really helpful in deciding the exact marks, even though she attended an extended version of assessor training, which lasted the whole day. She describes part of the training:

Kitty: And I asked “What are the standards? Marks of 80 and over, or A, what features the band? Shouldn’t there be clear guidance? Everybody has different standards.” Doesn’t everybody have different standards?

Researcher: Yes, they do.

Kitty: “Let’s decide what will constitute what marks.” So they showed an example and said this will be about a mark of what. But that was still vague. We should practice assessing for quite a while, but because it takes time, so it was done very briefly and the training was done within a day. That’s it, so marking was very unclear... (Kitty 2: 44-46)

As Kitty points out, just viewing video clips (three of them) that correspond to different bands does not make assessors competent to conduct the assessment. She believes it requires practice, which was totally absent in the training.

Finally, the use of a post-assessment conference was problematic. The post-assessment report submitted to the SMOE in 2010 does not include any information on the purpose of the post-assessment conference with the candidate; thus, it is not clear whether the assessors were notified of the purpose when my participants were assessed. The purpose was later explained as “asking questions which arose during observation” in 2011 (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2011f), but still it does not clarify the content of the conference. With or without the clarification, it seems the main use of the session differs across the assessors. For instance, Rima describes it more in terms of deciding the actual

mark of the demo lesson (Rima 2: 49), while Kitty describes it more in terms of giving feedback on the strengths and weaknesses of the lessons (Feb. 17, 2012, Field note vol. III, p.21). The assessors told me that they discussed the following topics during the post-assessment conference: the motivation for applying for the certificate, asking opinions on certain issues, and feedback on the demo lessons, as well as clarifying questions about the demo lessons such as the objectives of the lesson and the purposes of the activities, which concern the original purpose of the post-assessment conference (Rima 1, Paragraph 9; Kitty, Feb. 17, 2012, Field note vol. III, p.21). The range of the topics overlaps with descriptions given by the candidates.

The rather vague briefings of the assessment criteria described by Rima, along with the lack of clarity regarding how to decide the band mark described by Kitty, as well as varied use of the post-assessment conference described by both, these all raise issues of validity and reliability. This arguably limits the impact of the TEE scheme on teachers' instructional practice and their professional development. Change in instructional practice requires a clear understanding of the direction of the change, at least from both the teachers and assessors in the certification. Discussion of the impact of the scheme in relation to their understanding of its aims will be resumed in Chapter 8.

***Realised marking procedure.*** The way the mark was decided is rather counterintuitive. The assessors were asked to submit their individual marking sheets as well as the group marking sheet which reports marks by all assessors in one sheet. As mentioned before, the three assessors in each assessment room were asked to give a preliminary mark to the lessons individually and then discuss the marks during the discussion time. The team leader, on the other hand, was asked to “moderate the opinions about the marks” among the assessor team members (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2011g). Both Rima and Kitty report that the following is how their assessor team executed the procedure. Once the individual marking is done, the assessors in the group discuss whether or

not they will pass or fail the individual candidates. Once it is decided, they allocate marks for individual aspects for respective candidates for the group marking sheet. Then the exact marks for individual reports were adjusted to this group report. This process seems to defeat the whole purpose of having multiple assessors, which is, to obtain opinions from different perspectives. However, this procedure was not adopted in all assessment rooms because the reported marks given to the candidates show that for about 10% of the cases there were more than 20 percentage points of difference among marks across the assessors, 100 being the full mark. The varying practice of the marking procedure is a serious concern for reliability of the scheme.

Another assessment practice that has breached the reliability is that some assessors gave good marks to the teachers they knew, according to the interviewed assessors. Rima, for instance, reports that she persuaded other assessors to give better marks during the post-assessment conference in cases when the performance of a candidate personally known to her did not match her expectations based on her previous knowledge of the competences of the candidate. She asked questions that would reveal the strength of the candidate during the post-assessment conference so that the person could be assessed according to his or her potential. This may be fair for the specific candidate, but not for other candidates who have not performed to their full potential but were not given the opportunity to defend their potential. The fact that some candidates were assessed solely on their performance at the site while others were assessed based on their potential once again raises the issue of reliability, which in part seems to be the result of the lack of clarity regarding the purpose of the post-assessment discussion.

In this section, I have discussed the assessment after the written test as experienced by the basic level candidates and the experience of the assessors. The issue of reliability was raised because candidates had varied levels of access to the information about the assessed lessons as well as of validity due to the artificiality

of the format of the assessment. However, it was also argued that the scheme has some validity because it reveals or predicts candidates' understanding of the promoted teaching style and some candidates relate their pedagogic choices in assessment to their usual lessons. The assessors' experience shows that the training they have received was insufficient to ensure the inter-rater reliability, particularly across assessment teams.

The overall discussion in section 7.4 on assessed lessons for the basic level candidates highlights the complexity of assessing teachers through the method of observation. It confirms the discussion in the literature that many prerequisites need to be met for observation to be effective, including adoption of the proper procedure – in this case the realised procedure - and assessor training (see discussion in 4.3.3). It also reiterates the need for regular review of an assessment (see discussion in 4.3.6) because the assessment scheme may encounter unexpected problems, such as ones described in this section. Finally, it confirms that the details of policies are decided jointly by all actors involved, including candidates and assessors; thus, any policies should be researched in terms of the realised process as discussed in 4.4. All these issues will be given full attention in Chapter 9.

In the next section, assessments that the advanced level candidates went through will be discussed. The process is rather complicated for this level, because they go through three different assessments: speaking tests, assessments during training, and the final assessed lesson conducted at candidates' own schools. The discussion reveals how the post-written test assessments for the advanced level evolved, and also explores the potential impact of the scheme on certified teachers' future instructional practice through detailed discussion of candidates' understanding of the promoted teaching style through a close analysis of the assessed lessons. Section 7.5.1 discusses speaking tests, 7.5.2, the training, and 7.5.3 – 7.5.8, the assessed lessons.

## **7.5 Master (advanced) level assessments after the written test**

### **7.5.1 Speaking tests**

The discussion in this section is based on the report on the certification procedure submitted to SMOE and interviews with the advanced level candidates. Those who have obtained 75% or more in the written test are eligible to apply for speaking tests which aims to measure candidates' English proficiency, and was conducted in the form of an interview. This test, as well as the training which will be described in the next section, was delegated to a teacher education institute; therefore, the decisions regarding its details were left to the discretion of the institute. The institute designed an assessment schedule based on ACTFL guidelines (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 2012). That is, the candidates were to be assigned to one of the five bands, which correspond to the four bands of the ACTFL proficiency guidelines for speaking, i.e., superior (90-100), advanced (80-89), intermediate (70-79) and novice (60-69), plus, a band created by the institute which they termed pre-novice (0-59) (TEE training team, 2011, pp. 4-5). For the round of assessment in which my participants belonged, the cut-off score was 78, the assessment being norm-referenced. All applicants who passed have thus received the band marks of intermediate or above. The interviews were conducted by the trainers in the institute, who happen to be native speakers of English.

Felicity reports that the topics of the interview included the reason for applying to the advanced level certificate, opinions on using English as the medium of instruction, and personal principles for English language teaching (Felicity 4: 18). Candidates who commented on this interview, Irving and Felicity, both describe the purpose of this interview as measuring fluency of the candidates, and both say it is relatively easy. This procedure relates to the third aim of the TEE scheme, securing the pool of teachers who can replace NESTs. This aim to replace NESTs and the procedure adopted show a contradiction within the scheme. The aim shows that the Educational Office appreciates the expertise of local English

language teachers and accepts that simply being a native speaker does not ensure that the person is a good teacher. This position reflects the appreciation of the non-NESTs in the current literature based on the realisation that ELT requires more than the proficiency in the target language (S. Andrews, 2007; Llurda, 2005; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999). However, the designated institute displays native-speakerism through hiring only native speakers to train English teachers and assess the English proficiency of the English teachers (Holliday (2006) among others contests this as discussed in section 3.1.6), something which was not well accepted by some participants. For instance, Sam says:

...You don't have to place native speakers in all programs... to listen [they] may sound ok, because they speak English, however, in fact, the content, in fact, they talk something which does not have any substance. Such talk, can it provide, really, the programme with a degree of completeness? If you listen, their talk has no substance and because it's in English considering it as wonderful, this is an extreme case of face validity...Such things seem to happen because one is obsessed with English, native speaker, and the target language... (Sam 2: 64)

Here he criticises the assumption that simply being a native speaker is a sufficient qualification to teach the candidate teachers and challenges the native speakerism. He questions the validity of the programme on that ground, saying it has the shape of validity or face validity, but lacks true validity.

### **7.5.2 Training programme**

This section discusses the content of the training programme which forms a part of the TEE certification for the advanced level candidates. The discussion draws on the training manual, interviews with the trainers and trainees, and the report by the training team to the SMOE on the training. The training programme analysed here took place in 2010 and lasted 5 weeks. The face-to-face training happened every Wednesday and Saturday, and self-study which was set aside for individual preparation for the assessed lessons was scheduled for Tuesday. The teachers were divided into three groups of twelve. The training for the advanced level

consists of three components: teacher methodology, teaching practicum, and others comprising a special lecture, project conferences, and ceremonies. This section will discuss these three components one by one.

**Teaching methodology.** Teaching methodology consisted of five input sessions and reflects the content of the observation schedule as discussed in section 6.3.4. There are several differences between the planned and the realised training sessions. First, all of these input sessions are supposed to be workshops (TEE training team, 2010, pp. 6-9), however, two participants, Felicity and Sam (Felicity 5: 99-128; Sam 2: 56), and Eugene, one of the trainers, commented that they were lectures where there were few opportunities for the participants to try out what they had learned, except for the PowerPoint session where teachers practiced making effective PowerPoint slides. Felicity and Sam comment as follows.

Researcher: So, then during the input session, was there some time for you to practice after they show how to, and it was not a one-way lecture?

Felicity: At the beginning, there were some lectures. But when we actually made PPT [PowerPoint] slides for our teaching we were given time to practice it, and as you know we did 10 minute microteaching... (Felicity 5: 105-106)

Sam: ...I have already told you, one of the biggest problems of the TEE certification programme is that - although we can discuss many [problems] - no collaborative system is being built although those really capable or interested teachers are gathering... Well, for a workshop, usually they should share experience, some information and knowledge, but there was no programme that supports this, in my view. They come, then just listen to those native speakers talk almost one-way, and do presentations at best... (Sam 2: 56)

They describe the input sessions with phrases such as “lectures” and “one-way” and discuss the presentation or the microteaching as when the teachers participated in the course. On the other hand, the PowerPoint session was described as a workshop, which matches the description of the session by Eugene, the trainer who was in charge of the session.



Second, the training centred on the observation schedule, and the instructors gave detailed tips on how to earn marks on each criterion. About the input sessions Felicity comments:

There, in the case of Charles, he gives specific directions, for instance, “Present two to three learning objectives.” So should I say all teachers planned very similar lessons according to the manual? In a sense, “TEE lessons are like this”, such guidelines were presented... Should I say that I have developed an eye for lessons? ...In fact, it’s just an eye adjusted to the observation schedule. (Felicity 5: 126, 188, 190)

By providing very detailed instructions on how to obtain a good mark for each criterion, the training programme facilitated the candidates’ understanding of one way to realise the lessons promoted by the certificate (TEE lessons). However, it also presented a very limited view of the TEE lessons, influencing teachers to adopt the instructors’ own interpretation of it at its worst, or reinforcing a very restrictively defined teaching style, PPP, through the observation schedule (as problematised in 6.3.3). This way, the training programme leaves little room for teachers’ own creativity and judgement, and as Felicity says, trainees simply develop abilities to conduct lessons “adjusted to the observation schedule,” (Felicity 5: 190) rather than exploring other options to provide students with opportunities to interact in the target language, which will be more useful when they go back to the classroom. Training teachers this way does not seem to contribute to achieving the scheme’s original goals such as development of their competences to conduct lessons in English and to assess lessons, develop competences to mentor, and become professionals of the lessons conducted in English to replace the NESTs, as described in Chapter 6. Thus, it became a missed opportunity for teachers’ professional development.

**Teaching practicum.** No specific information was provided about the practicum in the training manual except for the fact that it consists of three microteaching sessions which cover different parts of the observation schedule. This was divided

into three, preparation time, reflection and discussion, and application to out-of-class. These different components were realised in relation to one another as described below, drawing on narratives of participants Felicity (Felicity, Feb. 18, 2012, Field note vol. III, p.34 - 35) and Sam (Sam, 3: 58), as well as Charles, an instructor of the programme (Charles, 1: 37). The candidates prepared the microteaching sessions both individually and with the help of the teacher trainers. For the first two ten-minute microteaching sessions, teachers in the same group provided peer-assessment using the same observation schedule that they were to be assessed with (see Appendix 18 for the schedule), which included some general comments on the strengths and weaknesses of the lessons. Three out of eleven observer teachers were appointed as official peer assessors for each lesson and gave verbal comments after the microteaching in class, and the other participants gave feedback through the assessment sheets. The teacher trainer also wrote feedback and gave it to individual candidates. Each candidate wrote a half-page of self-reflection based on the feedback from the instructor and from all the other participants and shared it on the following training day, with everyone in the group discussing the self-reflection together. Due to time pressure, for the final microteaching no feedback was given and no reflection note was required.

Some content of the practicum matches features evident in the published plan for the training, which is, producing the final assessed lesson that ticks every assessment criterion in the observation schedule, as predicted in Chapter 6. Therefore, the practicum was organised around the observation schedule. That is, the first microteaching covered the first three domains of assessment criteria, opening, presenting the target language and guided practice, and the second microteaching addressed the rest of the criteria, leading activities and tasks, and closing the lesson. This focus on the observation schedule was evident in the realised programme as confirmed by Eugene, one of the instructors, who describes the programme as helping teachers “jump through hoops to get a certificate” (Eugene 1: 20).

This is rather problematic for all three objectives of the training programme. Restricting the lesson to the formulaic application of the observation schedule does not help achieve the first objective of building up teachers' ability to conduct TEE lessons and building the expertise for participants' future role as assessors. Providing teachers with opportunities to explore a variety of ways to realise lessons promoted by the scheme and share them will better equip them to go back and meet the diverse needs of the learners and the requirements of the contexts. It will also contribute to the third objective; that is, helping teachers to develop expertise in teaching English in English and enabling them to replace the NESTs. Teaching to the evaluation schedule is not an effective way to achieve the second half of the first objective, building the expertise for participants' future role as assessors. Training them in this limited way may lead them to reinforce the same restricted ways of teaching, which may threaten the validity of their own assessment activities. This concern can equally apply to preparing them for the role of mentor, the second objective of the training. A mentor with a dogmatic view of teaching hinders rather than supports the mentee's professional development. That is, if the certified person tries to impose PPP only and does not allow any other legitimate styles of teaching, it will not help the mentees, because it may or may not work in their contexts. The limited training will not help the certified person as a mentor much, because mentors' responsibilities cover abilities in different areas beyond teaching in a certain style.

In my view, however, some aspects of the microteaching - including writing and discussing the reflection on their own microteaching and peer-assessment - have provided some opportunities for the candidates to develop a broader sense of desirable TEE lessons. Involving participants in the analysis and reflection on their own and others' teaching practice is a very good way to raise awareness about their current practice and promote professional development (Tsui, 2009a; M. J. Wallace, 1991). It also helps participants with development of their ability to assess the lessons; assessment activities require practice as Murphy (1996) points out. Finally, from Felicity's report, it could be inferred that some participants

appropriated these reflective sessions to challenge the limited interpretation of a TEE lesson (Felicity 5: 126).

***Additional components.*** The final component of the training comprised a special lecture, project conference, and end-of-the-training ceremonies. The participants generally thought of the discussion in the special lecture as impractical. The lecture discussed the future role of advanced-level certified teachers who are intended to replace NESTs and teach in several schools as rotating teachers. They found this arrangement impractical, because teaching involves more than conducting lessons and if one visits several schools, the teacher cannot understand and address the needs of learners nor will the school welcome the arrangement.

The project conference was designed for the teachers to discuss microteaching with one another and receive necessary support. This was scheduled at the beginning of the day for Wednesday, and end of the day for Saturday. In scheduling this session this way, the training institute showed consideration for teachers who cannot leave school early for various reasons during the weekdays and for those who have to leave early on weekends. However, the sessions were run rather perfunctorily. Their attendance for the session was not checked, which seems to have contributed to low participation. I observed the session twice, and in each case many participants were absent, and the instructors only showed up towards the end although they were supposed to be there to provide support to candidates. It is understandable, therefore, that some of the participants like Hazel perceived it to be a waste of time and proposed that it should be cut out to shorten the training period (Hazel, Nov. 17, 2010, Field note vol. II, p.18). It seems the participants did not appreciate the conference or the plans about the certified candidates announced in the special lecture. Participants did not mention anything about the ceremonies.

In summary, the realised training programme had some elements that closely matched the planned programme and others which were different from the plan.

The input sessions were planned to be workshops, but became lectures. They did focus on the observation schedule as a whole as expected from the plan. There is little to be discussed about the match between the planned and the realised practicum, with not much specific information given in advance. What can be drawn from the data is that some advice given by the lecturers during the practicum has further narrowed the limited view of good TEE lessons which is presented in the observation schedule, but there were some opportunities for the teachers to express their own views of good TEE lessons that went beyond the prescription of the lecturers. Finally, the sessions that belong to the final component of the training programme, the special lecture and the project conference, do not seem to have served their purpose very effectively.

### **7.5.3 Preparation for the final assessed lesson**

As discussed in the previous section 7.5.2, candidates for the advanced level certification are required to participate in a training programme specifically designed as part of the TEE scheme. They are provided with information on the assessed lessons including the actual observation schedule which specifies the domains of assessment and relative marks given to each domain. They are trained in ways to conduct TEE lessons through lectures, three microteaching sessions that were assessed, and discussion of those lessons with the instructors and other participants. In this way, they were provided with much more support to prepare them for the final assessed lessons compared with the Ace (basic) level candidates. At least for this level, the access to necessary information is not an issue; however, the degree to which teachers understood what is promoted through the scheme remains an issue, and the discussion of this will be picked up in sections 7.5.6 - 7.5.8.

In fact, the emphasis of training was on helping teachers to pass the assessed lessons even to the degree that the original aims of the programme, training the candidates to be mentors and assessors of other teachers, were marginalised. In the words of Eugene, one of the instructors, “[The mandatory training]

programme is pretty much preparing them for their TEE demo [final assessed lessons]. And helping them to be able to pass the demo [final assessed lessons]” (Eugene 1: 42). Use of the word “demo” suggests that Eugene considers this final assessed lesson artificial rather than reflecting ordinary pedagogic practice, which view was also shared by the candidates as will be discussed in the next sections on assessed lessons. Additionally, many who have taken similar training programmes where they were asked to practice how to conduct lessons in English using communicative activities such as *Shimhwa Gwajeong* [Advanced Training] did not find value in this training and thought of this as a waste of time (Hazel, Nov. 17, 2010, Field note vol. II, p.8; Felicity 3:1, 5: 100, 102).

#### **7.5.4 Final assessed lesson**

Based on my observation of assessed lessons of four different candidates as well as analysis of my field notes, video recordings of the lessons and the report to the SMOE about the procedure, the assessment for this level proceeded as follows. A team of three assessors visit the candidate’s school, arriving 30 minutes before the assessment and meeting the head or deputy head of the school. The team observe a ‘regular’ lesson and make a preliminary assessment using the assessment criteria provided on the evaluation schedule, then immediately after the assessed lesson they conduct a ten minute interview with the candidate to discuss the lesson. After that, the assessors agree on a mark and finalise their evaluative comments among themselves. The head assessor then collects and sends the marking sheets to the assessment centre. The teacher sends the recorded lesson to the centre. This final assessed lesson accounts for 50% of the mark and the other 50% of the mark is from the training programme which was discussed in section 7.5.2. Candidates need to obtain an overall mark of at least 80% in order to pass and become certified. There was no minimum score required for each; however, those who have passed obtained at least 70% of the mark in each. The training, however, was mainly used for the purpose of preparing for the final assessed lessons. The candidates were even assured by the instructors that “[The

training institute] aims to give the best possible scores for the training which the three assessments are a part of so that all can pass the training” (Felicity, 5: 92). In fact, the institute passed all except one in terms of training (TEE training team, 2011, p. 28). For the round of assessment which I observed, 35 out of 40 candidates passed after the training and the final assessed lesson.

The final assessment of lessons was conducted at the candidate teachers’ own school and with one of their regular classes to assess the way teachers conduct lessons in their usual contexts. However, it does not always reflect a regular lesson. To illustrate, in preparing the final assessed lesson, some candidates, including Felicity, practiced the lesson a couple of times with the same student group they would be observed teaching in the assessed lesson (Felicity 5: 146), although other candidates including Sam report that they did not practice the lesson with the same group of students (Sam, Nov. 23, 2010, Field note vol. II, p.59). This raises the issue of validity as well as reliability because if candidates rehearse the lesson, what is measured is not the intended competences, that is, competences to conduct lessons in English in “normal” lessons. Teachers’ experiences and perceptions regarding this artificiality are discussed in 7.5.7.

Lack of understanding of the focus of the assessment including student centeredness turned out to be a problem for the advanced level candidates, too, despite the one-month intensive training offered to them. Felicity, who was certified for the advanced level at her second attempt, discusses her belated realisation that one of the promoted features of the assessed lessons was student-centeredness, even though she is now aware that the feature was emphasised in the previous year:

Felicity: What I felt during the training this year is that the direction of the TEE certification is changing toward student-centred activities, to make students do many things and make a lot of output. There was no mention of it being the focus for the assessed lesson, but the overall direction, before it was teachers’ fluency in teaching English and the overall flow of

the lesson - I formed the idea during the TEE-A assessment, but now, the focus is moving toward student-centeredness.

Researcher: So student-centeredness was not emphasised during the TEE-M training?

Felicity: Yes, it was. During the training last year, such aspects were emphasised and highlighted, but I might have missed it ((laugh)). (Felicity, 5: 136-138)

Her failure to be certified led her to reflect on feedback from assessors from the previous attempt to find the gap between the promoted teaching style and hers. Through this she realised the difference and adopted the promoted style during the assessed lesson. This is in line with the obvious finding by Kubanyiova (2009) that awareness of the difference is prerequisite for teacher change. She might have been further sensitised to the difference by comments from one of the assessors this year who told her that many teachers fail to adopt student-centeredness which leads to failure in being certified (Felicity 5: 136).

The fact that some candidates did not understand the methodological focus of the TEE scheme was noted by both of the trainers I interviewed. Eugene, one of the trainers, says, "Some of those who will be certified don't have, or they don't necessarily reflect the attitude or the knowledge or the competence to really do [TEE lessons] on a regular basis" (Eugene 1: 20). Thus he points out that teachers may be able to be certified without even knowing the promoted teaching style or the abilities to realise such style in regular lessons. His comments thus question both the construct and consequential validity of the TEE scheme.

This criticism highlights the need to investigate what ability is measured through the assessed lesson and, thus, what consequential ability will be developed after teachers go through the scheme. One way to investigate these is through analysing the lessons teachers have planned and conducted during the final assessment, and actual assessment results. The next four sections, 7.5.5 – 7.5.8, explore the degree of matching between the lessons promoted by the scheme,



what teachers planned and implemented, and what assessors made out of them, drawing on the assessed lessons that I have either observed or obtained video recordings of, their lesson plans, and discussion of the lessons with the candidates, as well as reports on those assessed lessons. I decided to analyse four assessed lessons, two by candidates who successfully passed the assessed lessons and the other two by candidates who did not pass it at this sitting. This way, I attempted to investigate what was understood as promoted teaching style both by the assessors and candidates.

### **7.5.5 Final assessed lesson: Relationship with the goals of the TEE scheme**

As discussed in 6.1, the TEE scheme is one of several educational policies which have the primary goal of developing students' communicative competence. Therefore, the analysis of the final assessed lessons will not be limited to the degree to which the lessons match the PPP framework as promoted by the observation schedule. Rather, it will investigate the degree to which the candidates and assessors seek to provide opportunities for students to interact in the target language in lessons and convey their personal meaning. It is not sufficient just to provide such opportunities in order to develop students' communicative skills; however, it is a prerequisite. In addition, it is the main aspect which sets the TEE lessons as operationalised in the evaluation schedule apart from traditional lessons. Therefore, in analysing the assessed lessons, the focus will be placed on the degree to which the candidates provide students with those opportunities. This will help in understanding the effectiveness and impact of the TEE scheme.

The following discussion assumes that teachers would have tried to exhibit their best understanding of the teaching style that they perceived to be promoted by the scheme during this final assessed lesson, since it counts for a significant percentage of marks towards certification. In addition, the English proficiency of the candidates will not be considered as a factor, even though 40% of the mark

for the assessed lesson concerns candidates' English proficiency. This is first because all participant teachers discussed in this section were assessed as proficient enough during the speaking test discussed in section 7.5.1. And secondly, the assessors' marks for candidates' English proficiency were not reported in the final report on the assessed lesson submitted to SMOE (TEE training team, 2011), therefore, it is not possible to see how teachers' English proficiency influenced their final mark for this assessed lesson. In order to help the readers to imagine lessons better, I will use terms of English language teaching approaches and methods such as Audio-Lingual Method and Task-based Language Teaching. Section 7.5.6 covers the planned lessons, 7.5.7, the realised lesson, and 7.5.8, summary of findings.

### 7.5.6 Final assessed lesson: Planned lessons

The discussion in this section is based on reading and interpreting the lesson plans for the assessed lessons which my four participant teachers have written for the assessment and shared with me later. Table 4 presents the learning objectives of those lessons. Appendix 19 presents the activities planned for the lessons as well as the realised activities. The learning objectives and activities were largely taken from candidates' lesson plans. However, in some places what teachers were planning was not clear and, therefore, I had to refer to the other parts of the lesson plan and sample materials. In other cases, I inferred what they meant in the plan by observing the realised lesson and repeatedly viewing their recordings which were also shared by the participants. The discussion in the section will concern the planned learning objectives and activities in turn.

**Table 4 Learning objectives of 4 teachers' assessed lessons**

Irving	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To learn new words</li> <li>2. To understand a passage</li> <li>3. To memorize a few sentences</li> <li>4. To consider ways to lead a green life</li> </ol>
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Sam	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To understand the composition of a story</li> <li>2. To learn the relationship between the pronouns and referents</li> <li>3. To build team spirit</li> </ol>
Felicity	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To organize the given information from the reading text</li> <li>2. To describe different parts of a painting and infer the meaning of proverbs from the painting</li> </ol>
Bonnie	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To be better able to use key expressions and new vocabulary items about table manners</li> <li>2. To identify different table manners across cultures</li> </ol>

To view the learning objectives, it seems that the lessons planned by different teachers have varying degrees of potential to provide opportunities for students to use English. The objectives set by Irving and Sam regarding language learning address receptive skills only, although their lesson objectives which concern learning beyond language – considering ways to live green and building team spirit (Irving's 4<sup>th</sup> objective and Sam's 3<sup>rd</sup> objective) - may provide opportunities for developing productive skills. On the other hand, objectives chosen by Bonnie and Felicity address the opportunities for spontaneous interaction, through including learners' use of language in the learning objectives (Felicity's 2<sup>nd</sup> objective and Bonnie's 1<sup>st</sup> objective).

The planned activities (see Appendix 19, column 2), however, show that all teachers were trying to provide opportunities for the students to use English, although to different degrees. Bonnie, who was trained in the in-service programme called ICELT accredited by Cambridge ESOL, reflected the observation schedule (which was developed drawing on the ICELT observation schedule)<sup>22</sup>

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<sup>22</sup> There is no official mention of the ICELT observation schedule in its development report; however, as one of the researchers who participated in the development, I could observe that it was one of the major reference materials.

more closely than other candidates. Her activities almost exactly reflect the order of the observation schedule, if one counts giving advice as the production phase because it involves some spontaneity (see Appendix 18 for the schedule).

None of the other three teachers follow the framework of the observation schedule as closely. However, all include activities where the students use English - even though in some cases it does not involve the language item presented - and this shows that all teachers may have been aware of the agenda of the scheme. To illustrate, to view Appendix 19, column 2, in her lesson plan, Felicity includes some elements that reflect the observation schedule, such as introducing the topic (activity 2), introducing the chosen language item, that is, proverbs (activity 4), and providing opportunities to do guided practice to produce the proverbs through connecting the parts of the proverbs in group (activity 6). However, she does not provide an activity where students can 'produce' them, which might not have been easy but possible. For instance, she could have asked the students to give advice to a partner using the proverbs, which she did in her retrial for certification. Still, there seem to be potential opportunities for the students to use English which is beyond the chosen language items. In activity 4, she asks students to figure out the meaning of the proverbs in groups, which may encourage them to exchange opinions in English. Another feature of Felicity's lesson is strong emphasis on learning vocabulary, to meet students' needs – the senior high school students try to learn as many words as possible in preparation for the national college entrance exam. The significance of this additional feature will be discussed in the next section.

Irving presents the topic of the day (activity 1) and the target language, that is, new words (activity 2), and provides guided practice through filling-in-the-blanks of two reading passages in pairs (activity 4) and completing the summary in group (activity 6). The jeopardy game (activity 7), a group activity, may provide the opportunity to produce the language, but it is not clear from the plan because the content is not provided. The 5<sup>th</sup> activity, reconstructing a paragraph from

sentences provided in groups, may not necessarily involve using the introduced language items.

Sam's lesson differs from all other three lessons: the other three follow the PPP framework while he broadly follows the framework of task-based language teaching (TBLT). He starts the lesson with the activity of building up a paragraph with sentence strips, and then teaches the cohesive devices including referents and antecedents, so that what students might have noticed in discussing how to rearrange the sentences was explicitly taught later. It seems he provides plentiful opportunities for the students to use English and it is highly likely that students will engage in the activity because the activity seems to address the interest of students - deciding the name and logo of the team and calling the teacher using their mobile phone. Like many teachers, however, he does not strictly follow the communicative approach only, but combines it with other teaching approaches. For instance, when he asks the students to read the text after him, it evokes the Audio-lingual Method.

To summarise, in terms of the learning objectives, it seems only Bonnie and Felicity are concerned with provision of opportunities to use presented language items; however, the chosen activities suggest that all participants may have been aware of the agenda of the scheme that the students should use English to express their own meanings. This lack of coherence between the learning objectives and the chosen activities may reflect their limited understanding of the promoted practices. Or, reflecting on my own experience of writing lesson plans in English, it may be due to lack of a sufficient repertoire of English for teachers to describe what they aim to achieve in the lesson using English or uncertainty about what to include in lesson plans. This issue was not probed further; however, the realised lessons which will be described in the next section may provide further understanding. The next section will also discuss the extent to which the planned opportunities for students to interact in the target language were realised.

### 7.5.7 Final assessed lesson: Taught lessons

In this section, I will discuss the taught lessons drawing on the following data: observation and video recordings of the assessed lessons of four candidates as well as field notes I generated on the assessed lessons; post-assessment interviews I conducted with candidates; and the report on the assessment procedure submitted to the SMOE. In analysing the assessed lessons, the themes I noted down during the assessed lessons became my initial guide; however, I reviewed the recordings several times to fully understand and analyse the assessed lessons. The section aims to examine whether or not the objective set by the TEE scheme, that is, development of students' communicative competence which was interpreted as provision of opportunities for students to use English for their own meaning, was met by the candidates and the assessors. That is, to what degree and how did candidates actually provide the opportunities for students to use English that were sketched in the lesson plans, and whether the assessors were looking for conditions created to promote the development of students' communicative competence or mechanically following the observation schedule which reflects the PPP framework. It will not examine, however, the effectiveness of the lesson, for instance, in terms of whether or not the learning objectives set by the candidates were achieved.

***Candidates' performance.*** The 3<sup>rd</sup> column of Appendix 19 shows the realised lesson. Its content largely reflects what was presented in the 2<sup>nd</sup> column, the lesson as planned by the teacher; however, as with most lessons, some parts were revised by the teacher before or during the lesson. Therefore, there are some discrepancies. Also, some activities did not turn out the way the teachers intended because the students did not respond the way teachers wanted them to for various reasons, such as students' unfamiliarity with the activity, or because the materials provided did not effectively support the planned activity. Below, the realised lesson as summarised in the 3<sup>rd</sup> column of Appendix 19 will be analysed against the planned lesson presented in its 2<sup>nd</sup> column.

Different candidates achieved varying degrees of match between the planned and the realised activities in terms of providing opportunities for students to interact in English, the target language. Broadly speaking, the activities Felicity and Irving used did not provide such opportunities, while Bonnie's and Sam's did. The details and potential reasons for this variation will be discussed lesson by lesson below.

In Irving's lesson, all the activities that he planned as either pair or group work turned out to be individual work (activities 4 through 7) and, thus, the opportunities for students to produce language were not realised. Irving provided the same worksheets or PowerPoint slides for all students. Thus, the reason for students to communicate among themselves such as an information gap was not created and students worked individually in silence. This led to minimal production of language on the students' part, which was noted by two assessors (TEE training team, 2011, p. 29). The only times where the students used English was when Irving was leading the lesson. For instance, when students were asked to guess the topic of the day; or when they were asked to either rearrange given alphabets or words or fill in blanks. In these cases, too, however, their answers were limited to one-word utterances.

In Felicity's lesson, the opportunities to interact in the target language were utilised by students only partially. The first group activity (activity 4) evolved to be individual work. This may be partly because the students were given the same handout, and also because the activity, translation and information matching, does not require much interaction. Her next group activity (activity 6) led all groups to work together. She provided one set of task material to each group this time, a board with pictures and a blank table, strips of proverbs and strips of the meaning of those proverbs to match with the pictures. However, as the outcome of the activity was matching the information and writing down some translations, the opportunities for free use of the language were rather limited. Her last group activity (activity 8), for which she provided one blank sheet to each group and asked them to write down the proverbs related to the three pictures shown on

the screen, led some groups to work together but in others, one of the students wrote down all three proverbs without talking with other members. Her other activities were mostly lectures or teacher asking a question and students providing the appropriate words (activities 2, 3, 5, and 7). Thus, students' output of language was limited, as pointed out by two assessors (TEE training team, 2011, p. 38).

This limited use of language by students in activities intended as pair or group activities in these two lessons seems partly due to the nature of the activities and materials given. That is, during the lessons conducted by Felicity and Irving, no information or opinion gap was created; thus, it was not necessary for them to interact with one another to complete the tasks despite the expectation and urging from the teacher to do so. The possibility that students do not take up the opportunity to interact when there is no information or opinion gap is reported in the relevant literature (e.g., Pica, Kanagy, & Falodun, 2009, p. 177). This suggests that these teachers had a wish to promote interaction but were lacking in experience in ways to do so. The gap between the plans and the realised lessons confirm the previous finding that it is difficult but important to provide materials suitable for a newly promoted pedagogy and that it takes time for teachers to personalise the new pedagogy (Pennington, 1996) (see 4.1.1 for related discussion).

Additionally, Felicity's lesson consisted of teacher centred activities. This was partly because she did not understand that the TEE scheme promotes student interaction, as discussed in section 7.5.4. However, there was another reason for her instructional choices. She tried to review the new words as often as three times and followed the textbook content because she did not want the students to feel that they were being taken advantage of. She says of her experience:

... I didn't want them to feel that they were being used... The native assessor commented to me, "Why are you teaching only the textbook? You need to link it with actual use, but you limit your teaching to the textbook and explain the



textbook only.” It’s because what the school wants is teaching to the textbook. That’s what students want too. That’s the way to obtain a good Grade Point Average (GPA). Whether or not they will be able to use English later is another issue...What is important to them is the GPA and the college entrance exam... (Felicity 3: 18, 26)

Felicity chose the activities that respect students’ possible feelings and their wants, that is, a lesson that helps obtain a good GPA score and prepare to enter college rather than one that helps “to be able to use English later,” which would have helped her pass the certification. What Felicity says in this excerpt illustrates the conflict there is between this teacher’s experience, the learners’ expectations, the learning environment and context, and the policy being put forward. This conflict was identified as a major challenge for success of ELT curricular innovations as discussed in Chapter 4.

The interview with her revealed two other reasons that might have affected the level of students’ participation in the lesson: the contextual limitation and lack of authenticity of the assessed lesson. Felicity had to “borrow” students, because her students have already taken the national college entrance exam and therefore no longer participate in the regular curriculum. She says, “There was no rapport. In fact I saw them only twice...and they feel uncomfortable, because I am not their teacher...Anyway, it is difficult to teach somebody else’s students” (Felicity 3: 18). This excerpt shows first, due to the contextual limitation, she did not have much rapport with the students and they were not responsive. This was also the case for Irving. Additionally, as she says, she met the students twice before and practiced the lesson. Therefore, the students might have found the lesson very boring, going through the same activities with the same materials for the third time. Rehearsing a lesson in preparation for being observed is not an uncommon practice in the context, to the degree that Rima, one of the assessors I interviewed, reported that the first question she asks the candidates when a lesson runs smoothly is how many times the candidate practiced the lesson (see also Hayes, 2012a). Sam also reported that he had considered that option, even

though he decided not to. The resultant artificiality defeats the aim of the assessed lesson to evaluate usual lessons and seriously threatens its validity.

In the other two lessons, students were actively communicating with the teacher and among themselves using English. Sam's students used English in group works (activities 4 and 7) when Sam or the assessor visited their table, although they often spoke in Korean amongst themselves. Students' open use of Korean seems to be encouraged by Sam. Instead of discouraging its use, during teacher-student interaction, Sam built on students' comments in Korean. For instance, Sam accepted the answer in Korean with a compliment, and then invited the students to answer in English again, and when the students in question failed, he asked another to try and waited patiently, instead of providing the answer himself. This practice is in line with his view that exclusive use of English is not feasible and that Korean should be allowed in English lessons. He says:

And in fact, at an international conference, in TESOL Quarterly, there was a case study of Korea, in 2006. Both teachers and students welcome it as a TEE lesson if English is used over 50%, why do we aim for 80% or 100%? Such an impossibility, from the beginning, isn't it an invalid goal? (Sam 2: 88)

But most of the interactions between the students and the teacher were in English, and there were many opportunities for these interactions to happen because engaging in a dialogue with one of the students was a technique he adopted very often during his lesson. Such dialogues provided students with opportunities to express their own meanings in English. For instance, when the students tried to guess the theme of the song Sam played at the beginning of the lesson, even though their guesses were not the intended answer, the students expressed what they thought was relevant to the song thus conveying their personal meaning (activity 1). Students' use of the language, however, was limited to phrase level in most cases, a couple of words in length.

In Bonnie's lesson, the students were given ample opportunities to use the key words and expressions in context (activities 3, 5, and 6) even though the use was not spontaneous and creative as promoted in some of the criteria of the observation schedule. This formulaic use is due to the type of activities: they require only unidirectional response - giving advice to the child in the video recycling those same expressions (activity 3) or providing fairly limited opportunities for interaction - guessing the formulaic advice that fits the picture that was described or mimed (activity 6). The free production activity (activity 5), completing the chart of table manners of three countries in pairs using the given strips of description, led some pairs to interact verbally and the teacher strictly policed students' use of Korean. For other pairs, however, it seemed there was no interaction because the stronger student took the initiative and placed the strip in the appropriate blanks without discussing the answer with the partner. Still, formulaic as it was, students' use of English expressed their own meaning.

To summarise, in lessons conducted by Irving and Felicity, students hardly engaged in any interaction among themselves, and their use of English to express their own meaning was very limited. On the other hand, in lessons by Bonnie and Sam, the students were actively using English to express their own meaning, even though the length of the output was limited and they were recycling the formulaic expressions that were presented. This difference in terms of students' use of language to express their own meaning is largely due to the fact that the activities chosen by Irving and Felicity did not provide reasons for the students to interact, such as an information or opinion gap. It is also because Felicity tried to meet the perceived needs of students in addition to the requirements of the observation schedule. Comparing the planned lessons to the realised lessons shows that all teachers were working for the agenda to provide students with opportunities to use English whether they were aware of it or not, but its realisation was conditioned by their lack of familiarity with conducting such lessons and also other contextual factors which affected the interaction between the teachers and the students.

**Assessors' performance.** Interestingly, the degree students employed English to express their own meaning correlates with the assessment results. That is, lessons where students communicated their meanings using English were given pass marks, and lessons where students did not take up such opportunities were given failing marks. This result indicates that students' output may have been one of the major criteria the assessors considered in deciding the marks for the lessons. In fact this speculation is confirmed by the analysis of the evaluative comments from the assessors. I divided the evaluative comments into thought groups. That is, I considered the words, phrases, or sentences which discuss one topic as comprising one thought group and counted as one comment. To view the assessors' evaluative comments on these four lessons, the assessors clearly assessed the lessons in reference to the observation schedule (e.g., "Lack of authentic and spontaneous use of English by students", 29 comments). However, they also commented on the lesson in terms of usual criteria including effective teaching skills and use of ICT and media and good content and organisation of the lesson (e.g., "Good use of guided reading strategies; good classroom management", 25 comments) (TEE training team, 2011, pp. 38, 40).

The fact that the comments address these two different aspects implies there is an issue of validity and reliability, both in positive and negative ways. The fact that the assessors were not simply ticking the criteria but assessed the general quality of the lesson ensures the validity of the assessment from the point of the overall learning opportunities, and reflects the feature of expert performance as incorporation of all areas of knowledge as discussed in Chapter 3. However, in other ways, it reduces the validity of the scheme, because assessors' comments go beyond what the evaluation schedule aims to measure, as extreme as the ability to incorporate the ICT effectively into the lesson. It also creates the problem of reliability because the assessors, if they are giving the marks according to what they noticed, were assessing on different grounds.

To view comments related to the observation schedule, the most frequent theme was student participation and student-centeredness (e.g., “Needs more student-centred activities”, 11 comments) and the second most frequent theme was the opportunities for students to use, or their actual use of, English (e.g., “Spontaneous and natural student utterances”, 6 comments), confirming my hypothesis that the major evaluative criterion was students’ use of English. To view those comments in detail, the assessors were trying to reflect the observation schedule closely, because their comments include expressions taken from the schedule such as “clear instruction for the tasks” (7<sup>th</sup> criterion), “variety in types of interaction” (9<sup>th</sup> criterion), and “authentic and spontaneous student utterances” (10<sup>th</sup> and 11<sup>th</sup> criteria). Comments on teachers’ English proficiency (5 comments), amounts of teacher talk (4 comments) and teachers’/students’ attitudes toward teaching English in English (3 comments) also reflect the schedule.

These themes taken up by the assessors as well as the correlation between students’ use of English - even though sometimes it lacks spontaneity – and assessment results are noteworthy. The assessors do seem to reflect the spirit of the scheme in their assessment activity, that is, provision of the opportunity to use English, even though the interviewed assessors reported that they did not have clear understanding of the observation schedule and that they were not confident about deciding the band mark (as discussed in 7.4.4). After all, the scheme may have failed to promote specific aims such as creativity and spontaneity of students’ utterances; however, it seems to have succeeded in inducing provision of opportunities for students to use English in class, and this is a huge change and development from lessons focused on knowledge about English.

The results from the analysis of the lessons and the assessment results seem to indicate that the assessed lesson exhibits mixed results in terms of its validity. First, the fact that the degree to which students exploit the opportunities to use

English correlates with the assessment results - interactive lessons were given pass marks, and those less interactive ones were given failing marks – shows that the assessed lesson for the advanced level displays construct validity. It seems, therefore, both teachers and assessors are working together for the promoted change of classroom practice, regardless of their awareness and intention to do so.

However, at the same time, there are issues to be considered to ensure the validity of the scheme. First, despite the intention of the scheme that it will assess a regular lesson to assess teachers' usual performance, various circumstances forced some of the candidates to make decisions that detract from this intention, teaching "somebody else's students", which reduces the construct validity, and some candidates practiced the lesson with these students, which diminishes the criterion-related validity of the assessed lesson. Second, as noted before, the difference in students' interaction level is not solely attributable to teachers' different understanding of the lesson promoted by the TEE scheme. For instance, it was noted that teachers consider various things other than passing the certification such as the wants of students; thus, their unsuccessful performance at the assessed lesson does not necessarily mean that they will not be able to perform well in the future. In addition, it seems the nature of teacher change is not reflected in this scheme, which raises the issue of criterion-related validity. That is, as discussed in Chapter 3, change in teaching style is incremental and requires experiment and experience with the teaching style; therefore, the failure to achieve the desired level of interaction in this assessment does not necessarily mean that the candidates did not support or understand the promoted teaching style, and perhaps their unsuccessful attempt might need some acknowledgement. (This issue of partial success will be picked up in the next chapter.) Felicity's rather unsuccessful attempt might be partially due to this incremental nature of teacher learning: she led students to use English by ensuring an information gap and relating the activities to students' personal lives in the retrieval, and was successfully certified.

### 7.5.8 Final assessed lesson: Validity of the assessment

In this section, I will briefly summarise the match between the planned lesson and the realised lesson in terms of provision of opportunities for students to interact. After that, I will evaluate the assessed lesson against the validity criteria I discussed in Chapter 4. To recap, construct validity concerns whether the tool measures what it aims to measure; criterion-related validity concerns the degree of prediction of candidates' future or current performance; inter-rater reliability concerns consistency of measurement across different assessors.

Analysing the planned and the realised lessons shows the following. First, in terms of matches between the plan and the realised lesson, the lesson plan, which is a reflection of what is planned, does not reflect the realised opportunities for students to interact in the target language, or for them to develop communicative competence. It seems that the tasks and materials provided in lesson play a particularly important role in whether or not students take up the opportunities provided to use the language.

Second, in terms of the validity of the assessment, it seems that evaluating the validity of an assessment of lessons is a rather complex task. It seems that the assessment has some degree of construct validity. The results from the assessed lesson correlate with the observed opportunities for the students to use the target language. This is not a direct reflection of students' development of communicative competence, but could be a precursor to it. On the other hand, deciding the criterion-related validity is rather complex. Teachers' performances at the assessed lessons do not necessarily show their ability to adopt the promoted pedagogy in their usual lessons. Some candidates in the senior high school were not able to teach their own students, and others practiced the lessons with the same students beforehand. In addition, some teachers' pedagogical choices in the assessment do not necessarily reflect their understanding of the promoted lessons, because they are influenced by factors

other than the requirement of the assessment including the perceived expectations of the students.

Some issues of reliability were raised. The assessors' comments on the assessed lessons show that the assessors were assessing not just based on the evaluation schedule, but also referring to the usual criteria for judging effective lessons, such as classroom management and flow of the lessons. This shows that inter-rater reliability was not ensured. Perhaps this was due to the fact that there was not sufficient assessor training.

## **7.6 Post-certification**

The basic level applicants are given three opportunities to take the assessed lessons once they pass the written test. After one year, the applicants should take the written test once again if they have not been able to obtain the certificate. The failing advanced level candidates are obliged to repeat the interview, the training and the assessed lessons in order to be certified. For the advanced level candidates to repeat the same training programme seems rather pointless. Also, as Hazel emphatically and repeatedly says (Hazel, Nov. 17, 2010, Field note vol. II, p.18), the fact that advanced level candidates' attempt to be certified is publicised through attendance at a training programme that disturbs other teachers' schedules and through a visit by the assessor team. This makes the failure to obtain the certificate a source of tremendous stress and loss of self-confidence and face. In fact, this prevented some from trying again after their first failure (one such case will be discussed in section 8.3). Considering these, asking those who have failed to repeat the same disruptive procedure creates some tension. However, some teachers are willing to face this repeated process because they take this as additional learning opportunity and it contributes to their goals. Felicity describes her experience of retrial:

Felicity: I failed to obtain the certification last year because I didn't deserve it. And when I attended the [advanced level] training this year, I felt I was lucky. The training I received last year was what I needed – to learn about



the details of running a lesson, and the training this year also helped me because I could learn about the educational policies of Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education. I thought “Failure last year was a blessing in disguise.”

Researcher: You are very positive.

Felicity: So I should be. I have a lot to learn... (Felicity 5: 172-174)

In her second turn, she says she has a lot to learn. This theme is repeated throughout the interviews with her. She wants to learn more and puts efforts in to develop herself further through various routes, because she wants to be a better teacher. Having such a professional goal, the scheme was interpreted as an opportunity rather than as an obstacle.

As planned, those who were certified, regardless of the levels, were asked to participate in assessing and training other teachers. Some teachers who wanted to expand their activities outside the school such as Felicity welcomed the opportunities opened through the certification. On the other hand, many including Ginny, Rima and Sam found the additional responsibilities burdensome, trying to fit them into their already busy schedule. Ginny describes her recent experience:

...nothing good seems to come out of [the certification]. Now I regret having done it, because I have to attend other teachers’ lessons as a subject supervisor. I had to observe the first session [which starts at 9am] the other day, which made me really tired... (Ginny 1: 137)

Some of these teachers also note that their contribution after the certification is not systematically managed in a way that they can use the record in promotion, their professional goal, not to mention the fact that they are not compensated monetarily. Sam says:

...after doing the *TEE-Master*, if one contributes [to English education], well, there are differences among educational offices, but there is no [incentives] for our city;

for Kyounggi province, if one receives letters of appointment through participating in activities related to English education, it gives a score for promotion or *incentives* up to 3-4 letters a year...Such systematic managerial programmes should run simultaneously...

Also, some of the planned incentives for those certified were not realised including incentives when teachers move to a new school – Teachers who work for state schools are relocated every five years – or when they apply for promotion to be subject supervisors. Rima says:

In fact, the supervisor said that the certified will be given points on the School Information System, and be given advantages when they are relocated. However, none of these were realised. (Rima 2: 67)

What is notable about the post-certification procedure is that, first, the details were not specified in the initial related documents but were later clarified; second, some of the details of the procedure were not realised as planned. This shows that any policy keeps evolving and is not complete when it is first designed, which supports the view of policy and innovation as evolving processes (Ball, Maguire, & Braun, 2012; Markee, 1997), as discussed in section 4.2. More importantly, teachers' varying views of post-certification responsibilities show that teachers' professional goals, one manifestation of their professional identities, as well as the immediate context they work at are associated with their different perceptions of the scheme, confirming findings from previous studies on teacher evaluation.

## 7.7 Chapter summary

This chapter describes the realised scheme based on the accounts of different participants, my observation and reports on the procedure, and draws attention to the issues and potentials the implementation of this scheme opens up. Even though many tensions have been identified in relation to this implementation, considering the complex nature of the scheme and the many factors that shape

the implementation process – not least the fact that this is an entirely new scheme – it might also be argued that this scheme works as well as might be expected at this stage. Nevertheless, the following summary of my observations need all to be taken into account if the implementation of this scheme is to be improved.

Section 7.1 discusses the issue of access to information, and various factors and motivations influencing teachers' decisions about participation in the certification scheme. Sections 7.2 and 7.3, through the case of the TEE index and the written test, show that a policy runs into unexpected problems, some of which are solved in response to feedback from the participants and some of which remain to be solved. Section 7.4 on the assessed lessons at the basic level confirms the difficulty of attempting to carry out effective assessment through observation, and highlights the need for revision of an assessment scheme as a part of the cycle of the assessment. Section 7.5 which explores the assessments after the written test for the advanced level certificate, that is, speaking tests, training, and the final assessed lesson, shows how different actors contribute to the building of a policy process from a blueprint of the policy document and how the end result can be something different than what was intended. It also shows that the major actors in the scheme, the candidates and the assessors, exhibit their understanding of the promoted teaching style and their ability to realise the understanding during the procedure. This, in turn, shows the potential of the scheme to bring about the intended changes if the actors decide to. Section 7.6 on post-certification shows once again the open-ended nature of policy process and the fact that teachers' perceptions of the scheme are subject to the contextual features one is working at as well as their professional goals.

In the next chapter, Chapter 8, I will discuss the impact of the scheme, which will also highlight how teachers' perceptions and experience of the scheme as well as the educational context, which were discussed in this chapter, factor in the impact. Discussion in Chapters 6, 7 and 8 will form a foundation for discussion in Chapter

9, which will discuss factors which influence the effectiveness of the scheme and implications of the findings for curricular innovations and teacher certification.

## **Chapter 8      Impact of the TEE Scheme**

### **8.0 Introduction**

This is the last of the three chapters which report on and analyse the data I have collected on the Teaching English in English (TEE) scheme. With the aim to critically evaluate the scheme, in Chapter 6 I discussed the design of the scheme against the quality criteria of teacher evaluation, i.e., validity, reliability and practicality, as well as findings from research on teacher expertise, teacher development, and curricular innovation among others. More importantly, I challenged the legitimacy of some of the aims which were set by the scheme, for their assumptions and relevancy of the promoted practice to the local settings. In Chapter 7, I discussed what the scheme has evolved to be when the plan met the intricate network of people and context. The realised scheme drew a complex picture in terms of its quality. In this chapter, I will discuss the impact the scheme has had and the prospective impact it may have on teachers and their teaching.

The discussion in this chapter mainly draws on interviews with five English language teachers, Jack, Felicity, Stefan, Sam, and Rima, and my observation of pedagogic practices of Jack in his usual lessons and those of Felicity and Sam during the certification process. I decided to limit the number of main informants discussed in this chapter because teachers' perceptions of impact can only be fully understood against the contexts in which individual teachers work, and limiting the number enables more in-depth examination of the context. Nevertheless, their views reflect the views of my participants as a whole; otherwise, any variance with these views will be noted. Because this chapter mainly deals with perceptions, and some teachers express their ideas over several turns and clarify their points through this process, I have mainly quoted teachers who express their views succinctly.

I chose these five teachers out of the thirteen teacher participants because their perceptions of impact differed depending on 1) their engagement with the certificate, i.e., applying or not applying to the scheme, 2) results from the application, i.e., whether they pass or fail, and finally 3) different lengths of time that teachers have been certified. Thus, the participants to be discussed in this chapter comprise Jack who had decided not to apply for the certification, at least for the time being; Felicity who applied for the certification, failed at the first attempt, but passed the certification the second time around; two teachers, Stefan and Sam, representing the two different levels of certification, basic and advanced, who had just obtained the certificate at their first attempts; and finally, Rima who obtained the advanced level certificate two and half years ago and who had subsequently been working as a TEE assessor. Choosing cases this way, I hope to present a range of perceptions of the impact of the scheme.

One focus of this thesis is the nature of teacher change. It is beyond the scope of this PhD thesis to examine to what extent the intended innovation is taken up in the “normal” English language classes as a result of the scheme because it requires a much more longitudinal investigation. At the same time, even such longitudinal investigation will not be able to trace the impact of the scheme, when there have been many other big and small innovations which tried to induce the same changes, such as the introduction of the National English Ability Test, changes of school assessment for English subject, the English-Only Zone, and revision of the national curriculum (See section 6.1 for further details of such government-led innovations). What I have done is to discuss expected change as it is reported by participants during the interviews. This is meaningful investigation because teacher beliefs have been found to be the most influential factor which affects teachers’ pedagogical practices (Borg, 2003; Wilkins, 2008), and the interview has been found to be a good tool to capture teacher beliefs (Breen et al., 2001; Mangubhai et al., 2004). It is my intention to extend this research later to include the longer term effect on teachers’ practices and students’ learning experience as perceived by the respective parties, which may change due to

contextual changes as created by this scheme itself and other related government-led initiatives.

This chapter evaluates the scheme for its potential for inducing changes and its actual impact. The first section, 8.1, which concerns potential for impact of the scheme that was created by its design and realisation process, has some overlap with discussion in the previous two chapters because some of the discussion that was presented from the angles of design issues and realisation of a plan is recapitulated with a focus on the impact of the scheme. Section 8.2 then discusses the perceived impact of the scheme on the planned areas, i.e., abilities and practice, with section 8.3 focusing on perceived impact on unintended areas. Section 8.4 synthesises the findings and, finally, section 8.5 concludes the chapter with a summary.

### **8.1 Opportunities for planned impact**

As noted previously, the TEE scheme has three aims, that is, promoting communicative lessons, expanding English as the medium of instruction, and improving the quality of English language education. As discussed in Chapter 6, the assumptions underlying the third aim were inaccurate and, thus, the expenditure remains similar after three years of implementation of the TEE scheme. It is not dissatisfaction with the quality of education, but the desire for parents to ensure their children's advantage in their academic performance and career choice, which makes Korean parents spend enormous amounts of money on private tutoring (H. Park et al., 2011). The government now presents the National English Ability Test as the solution to curb families' expenditures on private education (S. Y. Shin, 2012). Thus, this chapter will discuss teachers' perceptions of the impact of the TEE scheme on classroom practices only in terms of its first two aims. Below, I will first deal with the opportunities for planned impact from the design of the scheme followed by how they were realised.

The impact of the scheme on the two areas mentioned above was going to be limited from the start, for the following reasons. First of all, as discussed in the previous chapter, the assumption and understanding on which the scheme is built are rather flawed. The scheme assumes that teachers' expertise is what is needed to bring about the aimed changes as discussed in 6.2.1, and it does not acknowledge that teachers' pedagogical practice is decided by many more factors than teachers' expertise alone. It does not consider the fact that teaching is situated in a context, and shaped by expectations of students, parents and fellow teachers, as argued by several researchers (e.g., Freeman, 2002), and that some teachers who are experienced and informed about the promoted practice do not practice the promoted teaching for this very reason. The scheme did not investigate what is needed to change, whether it is teachers' attitudes, abilities or something else. These needs and means were not identified and invested in, despite the importance of identifying the means for an ELT innovation to be successful (Kiely, 2012).

The abilities required to adopt the promoted pedagogic practice were not understood clearly either. A crucial element of teaching expertise is incorporating various aspects of knowledge and employing them at the right moment (Borko et al., 1992; Cochran et al., 1993; Tsui, 2005) (as discussed in 3.1). This cannot be obtained through simply accumulating decontextualised knowledge and skills, which is what the scheme mostly leads teachers to do.

To add, the scheme reflects a limited understanding of the development of teaching expertise. For change to happen, teachers should be persuaded of the needs and possibilities of the changes (Borg, 2003; Wilkins, 2008), which fact was ignored. Reflection on practice has been found to induce pedagogic change (e.g., Russell & Munby, 1992); however, such reflection was only included in the advanced level training and nowhere else, including the post-assessed lesson conference for both levels. Teachers also should be given time to experiment with the promoted changes (Palmer, 1993; Sim, 2011) and be provided with required



emotional support (Schmidt & Datnow, 2005; Waugh & Godfrey, 1993), and these were also provided to advanced level candidates only during the training to a limited degree. Lastly, follow-up opportunities, a prerequisite for any teacher education to have meaningful impact (Lamb, 1995; Sim, 2011), were not provided.

Secondly, the abilities which the scheme aims to develop in teachers were operationalised in the assessment tools of the certification scheme far too narrowly. The written test, which aims to measure knowledge about English teaching, is limited to declarative knowledge (see 6.3.2), which can only help teachers in a limited way if they decide to adopt the promoted practices in the classroom. The assessed lesson, which measures the ability to conduct lessons in English, has an observation schedule which promotes the Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) framework (See 6.3.3 for detailed discussion of this point; see also footnote 23 for a discussion of PPP), which excludes other legitimate ways to develop students' communicative competence through teaching styles other than the PPP.

Finally, the actual implementation of the scheme was not given enough consideration in the planning stage. For instance, the scheme was designed in a way that made engagement considerably constrained by the context. For instance, a very high prerequisite TEE index of credits was set disregarding the fact that many teachers cannot participate in the activities required to obtain the index. As another example, teachers' applications for the certification were known to the colleagues and, thus, failure to be certified is seen as extremely humiliating. Hazel reports that this keeps some teachers, particularly those who are perceived as effective teachers, from applying for the certification (Hazel, Nov. 17, 2010, Field note Vol. II, p.19).

Perhaps partly for the reasons discussed above, the participation rate in the certification is surprisingly low. The government aimed to certify all English teachers at least at the basic level by the end of 2012 as discussed in Chapter 6. However, as of October 2012, only 12% of the 5,040 permanent secondary school

teachers were certified by the scheme (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2012). This low participation limited its direct impact to a relatively small group of teachers.

However, another significant factor which contributed to this limited number of certified teachers is the difficulty of being certified. As participants noted in Chapter 7, many teachers found it very challenging or even impossible to gain sufficient TEE index scores due to unfavourable professional and personal circumstances. Even those who managed to obtain the scores found passing the written exam very difficult according to my participants' common accounts, because it measures mostly theoretical knowledge of English language teaching which was perceived as having been developed by drawing on theoretical textbooks from BA and MA courses, although data on success rate at this phase is not available. Even among those who passed this written test, the pass rate in the assessment of lessons is not very high. For instance, 76% (31 out of 41 candidates) of those candidates from junior high schools were certified and only 58.5% of those candidates from senior high schools (31 out of 53 candidates) were certified at the basic level in the assessment conducted in the second half of 2010 (TEE training team, 2011), thus, 34% of the candidates failed at this final phase. For the advanced level candidates, there were multiple hurdles they had to jump over before they were certified, i.e., the speaking test, mandatory training and the final assessment, and a considerable number of teachers failed through these phases. For the batch of 47 teachers who applied for the advanced level certificate in the second half of 2010, 35 made it through the speaking test; and 30 of these teachers made it through the training and the final assessment, so that 17 teachers ended up failing to be certified (*ibid.*) through these phases. The proven difficulty of being certified, despite the fact that it was mandated for all English teachers with experience of three years and over seems to raise an important issue of consequential validity, because those who failed may experience a damaging impact on their sense of capacity.

However, lack of participation does not necessarily mean that teachers do not engage with the scheme. For example, Maria, who was not certified, exhibited her serious consideration of the agendas of the scheme when she discussed using English as the medium of instruction:

I can't agree with the idea that teachers' only using English is teaching English well... It's because we are not teaching just grammar or texts in textbooks, but we are also teaching about societies and cultures constantly comparing them. Then could it be effective? Here that's the reason [I do not use English exclusively]. And in the previous school, if we do [TEE], [students] think as if the teacher is slighting them because they cannot understand. Because it was not desirable, so I mixed [Korean and English] together. (Maria 1-3: 58)

She gives solid reasons for her partial adoption of English as the medium of instruction, even though she thinks the TEE scheme promotes exclusive use of English. She expresses her view that using English solely as a medium is not effective for realizing her own goal of English education which goes beyond simply teaching language skills, and that it might lead students with low English proficiency to misunderstand teachers as “slighting” them. Thus, it can be said that impact of the scheme was not limited to teachers who participated in the scheme.

It was also discussed that the realised phases of the scheme provided fairly limited opportunities for participant teachers to change. Most teachers resorted to their previous knowledge when taking the written test; some teachers participated in the assessed lessons without clearly understanding the criteria of assessment; the mandatory training for the advanced level candidates, despite its original intention to be interactive, turned out to be unidirectional. On the other hand, some of the design issues, such as narrow operationalisation of the communicative lessons, were solved through assessors' creative interpretation of the evaluation schedule.

The potential of the scheme to promote teacher change having been reviewed, the following sections will discuss whether or not teachers think the scheme will have the intended impact on teachers' pedagogical practices.

## **8.2 Perceived impact on planned areas**

Discussion in this section draws on teachers' accounts of their present or future changes in practices, or lack of change, which are summarised in the tables presented in Appendix 20. It should be noted, however, that their account of change may not necessarily reflect their current or future practices as pointed out in 8.0. The changes in the intended areas will be discussed in terms of 'awareness, abilities and attitudes' and 'practice'. These final areas of changes were mostly identified through thematic content analysis of the interview data. The identification was also informed by literature on teacher development through teacher education discussed in Chapter 3. For instance, it was discussed that the common areas of teacher development were cognitive, affective, and behavioural learning and changes in practices (e.g., Muijs & Lindsay, 2008; Pennington, 1996), and the cognitive changes concern changes in awareness, knowledge and beliefs (e.g., Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000).

The order of these areas of change mentioned by teachers, that is, awareness, knowledge and skills, attitudes, and practice, roughly reflects teachers' accounts of the difficulty of or resistance to changing the specific area. That is, changes in the first two areas are discussed without much resistance; changes in the last of these, practice, are considered with various provisos. Also, it is often the case that change in practice is discussed separately from changes in other areas, as in papers by Muijs and Lindsay's (2008) and Opfer, Pedder, and Lavicza (2011). Mirroring this convention, the following sections will discuss the changes in practice separately from other changes.

The impact will also be discussed around the two aspects of pedagogic practice promoted by the TEE scheme, that is, communicative teaching and use of English

as the medium for teaching English. However, it should be noted that not all teachers discuss the scheme's impact on the areas of both aims; that is, some discussed the issue of the ability to conduct lessons by adopting a communicative approach and others, the use of English as the instructional medium. This was partially due to the fact that not all teachers were aware of the first aim of the scheme. Jack does not seem to be aware of this focus at all; Felicity realised it only after she failed the certification in the first application, although she personally believed that English should be taught in a communicative way. Also, the teachers tend to discuss only the aspect they are mostly concerned with or interested in. Finally, some participants who have not reported any changes may have gone through some subtle changes such as reorganisation of concepts and re-ordering them in terms of their importance as discussed in section 3.2, but may not have noticed and thus not reported them. In hindsight, it is a pity that I did not further probe for aspects they did not discuss. Still, I will infer the changes in the areas they did not mention based on other available evidence such as my observation of their lessons. I will also identify areas where I do not have such extra data.

### **8.2.1 Awareness, abilities and attitudes**

***Communicative lessons.*** All participants expressed awareness of the government's aim to make English lessons communicative when they describe their usual instructional choices or their desire to conduct communicative lessons. This finding probably reflects the fact that the initiative for communicative teaching has a long history in Korean ELT policies (see 6.1 for the history). Perhaps that is the reason that, surprisingly, all my participants in principle agree to the value of teaching English for students to be able to communicate in it, rather than teaching about it. This may seem to be a fair starting point for change in teaching practice. Still, there remains the issue of the degree of teachers' understanding of the underlying principles of teaching English in a communicative way. Li's (2001) findings still seem to hold. All eighteen South Korean secondary school English teachers in his study report that they find adopting a communicative approach in

their lessons difficult. They all mentioned theoretical, rather than practical, training about the approach as one of the causes for the difficulty, which resulted in “a sketchy and usually fragmented understanding of CLT” (p.155). This limited understanding on the part of teachers, at least in terms of their account of the approach, can be observed in previous studies on teachers’ attempts to adopt CLT in their classrooms in the Korean context. Their descriptors of the approach are rather anecdotal (e.g. see K. Ahn, 2010) or the participants explicitly say that they do not know of the approach, although this is a case of primary school teachers (Park & Sung, 2013; Sim, 2011).

In terms of their development of related abilities, Felicity and Rima say that their understanding of the promoted teaching style improved through the certification process. Rima learned this from observing and discussing other teachers’ lessons, while Felicity found it useful to analyse her own lessons against the feedback from other teachers and evaluators. Felicity comments on her newly gained understanding in the following excerpt:

Felicity: Well, mm, from the training last year, I said I was happy to learn the details of lessons.

Researcher: Mm.

Felicity: So should I say I got to develop the ability to understand lessons?

Researcher: Mm.

Felicity: Well, it’s the ability to understand [lessons] according to the rubric after all.

Researcher: Right.

Felicity: I should say it is like “This is how I should plan activities,” rather than randomly putting them together... (Felicity 5: 186-192)

Felicity feels that she learned “how she should plan activities” to conduct lessons that reflect “the rubric”, which promises the possibility that she would be able to

conduct lessons following the PPP framework at least, which provides students with opportunities to use English at the final, production phase of her lessons.

Out of the other three participants, excluding Jack who did not participate in the scheme, two exhibited their knowledge of how to incorporate communicative activities either in lessons that I personally observed or lessons they described to me in interviews. During the assessed lessons that I observed, Sam showed that he understands how to conduct lessons to lead students to use English (see 7.5.6 and 7.5.7 for discussion of his lesson). For Sam, however, it is not clear whether or how his ability was influenced by the certification process. The only relevant information is his statement that before the certification he already thought using communicative activities was needed.

Stefan's description of the activities he used during the assessed lesson shows that he knows the type of activity that makes his lessons match the requirement "to develop communicative competence in English" (Sam 2:87). For Stefan, the scheme does not seem to have contributed to this ability because Stefan said he did not have access to information about the assessed lessons before he took the assessment. That is, he already knew how to realise a lesson that is passable in the assessment of the lesson before he engaged in the certification.

Regarding declarative knowledge about teaching, which the participants could have learned through the written test, Stefan, Felicity and Rima said they took the written test mostly based on previous knowledge they had gained from their BA or MA and/or while they were preparing for the Teacher Recruitment Test. Sam did not mention anything in relation to this, and Jack did not take the test. At least the majority do not report significant knowledge gain.

Regarding attitudes toward communicative lessons, of those who were certified, Felicity and Sam expressed their positive attitude and Stefan, his negative attitude. Rima did not express her position. Of these three who commented on their attitude, only Sam showed attitudinal change. He said the mandatory training for

the advanced level reinforced his view that communicative activities should be used during lessons. He says, “Well, I had such thoughts before, I did, now while I was doing the TEE training, my thought that “Ah, I need to include [communicative tasks]” was reinforced, I can tell you that much” (Sam 3:18).

It is worth noting that the attitudinal change reported is reinforcement of prior attitudes rather than qualitative change. The rest of teachers seem to retain their prior attitude. For instance, Stefan, who was negative toward the initiative, confirms his conviction through the certification, saying the use of communicative activities would not be valued by students. In other words, the scheme has had little impact on their attitudes.

***English as the medium of instruction.*** All five teachers mention their awareness of the government initiative to promote English as the medium of instruction. Particularly, Felicity and Stefan express the pressure they feel regarding the use of English, showing that the scheme is playing a significant role in drawing out teachers’ responses to this initiative. However, their understanding of what is promoted by the government regarding use of English as the medium of instruction differs across teachers, at least in part because of the ineffective ways of communicating its aims by the government as discussed in section 7.1.1. For instance, Felicity quotes one of the instructors who advised teachers regarding use of English as the medium to do what is possible even though it is “5% or 10% of the talk” (Felicity 3:7), thereby considering that teachers can be flexible about the medium; whereas Sam thinks the initiative is rather rigid because the government asks for “80% or 100%” (Sam 2: 88). This differing understanding, in turn, affects their evaluation of such promotion: Felicity describes what she understands as promoted as “realistic”, and Sam, as “an invalid goal.”

In terms of abilities, Jack, Sam and Felicity find the scheme ineffective in developing teachers’ English proficiency which they consider as integral for adopting English as the instructional medium. Jack thinks the scheme is training those who do not need training and not those who do. I previously used a part of



the extract below to illustrate the societal perception of senior teachers in Chapter 7. I will return to this data here to illustrate lack of impact of the certification on adopting English as the medium of instruction, as projected by Jack:

...[The TEE scheme is] a policy, in order to satisfy public opinion rather than to improve the English competence of teachers, the display aspect is too big. It may work if [the SMOE] selects those who need retraining and send those abroad for training or something like that, among those old teachers. Look now, those who go to Delaware or such places, they are all young, and fluent in English. (Jack 2-4:1)

He complains that those who are given the opportunity through the scheme to attend teacher training that takes place abroad in the US are those who already have a high level of proficiency in English. His observation is partially true because the index score required for application for the advanced level certification favours those who have a high level of proficiency in English, by requesting the score of standardised tests such as TOEFL and by selecting those judged to be fluent through the speaking test that was discussed in 7.5.1.

Likewise, Sam says the training cannot have much impact on English proficiency when it is only one month long. Felicity still shows her feeling of insecurity about her English proficiency after the certification, suggesting that the certification did not sufficiently affect her confidence in her English proficiency.

...I think I should at least do things like teacher talk in English, but in fact, if you keep using English, you get to speak in English easily, but if not, [the words] do not come out. If I try to use it spontaneously, I end up thinking "What was it?"... (Felicity 3: 13)

Felicity reports here that she cannot express her ideas freely in English because she does not use it often, even after she has finished the certification process, which attests that the training did not build enough confidence in her English to

adopt English as the medium of instruction. Rima reports that she already had confidence in using English as the medium of instruction and that she has long been using English in lessons. Those candidates for the beginner level certificate, including Stefan, were not provided with any meaningful opportunity to improve their English. In sum, the certification procedure has not affected teachers' English proficiency much, although it has given some teachers motivation to improve it, as discussed above.

However, this limited impact on their ability does not necessarily result in negative attitudes toward using English as the medium of instruction. For instance, two report a change in attitude toward the promoted practice, Felicity, who displays a new acceptance of it, and Rima, who expresses a reinforcement of her previous positive attitude, as the quotes below illustrate.

...And because teaching English in English was always emphasised about English lessons, I became aware of it, and I got to feel that I should use at least one more sentence in English. That is the biggest [change in my perspective about teaching]... (Felicity 5: 192)

...Master and Ace [certification], these things seem to have set the basic orientation of teachers to be, 'I should teach English in English.'... (Rima 2: 125)

Sam and Stefan, however, were strongly against using English as the medium and kept their attitude after the certification. Neither of them thinks it serves students' needs, as Stefan says below:

...Then with that TEE, are the students better? Did you see how they read? They can't even understand the themes of a text. That's why I am teaching the *rhetorical structure*... "...You lose marks because you don't think about the *sigma*, but think about only a part of them. To get the *sigma*, you have to understand the *pattern*, be it *comparison*, *contrast*, or *sequence*. You should find it out. That's the rhetorical structure. Only thinking about it that way, you won't get into the fallacy of picking a partial answer. I cannot teach this in English, so I will teach it in Korean, I don't have the ability. If you want TEE, go to another teacher. I just can't

do that.” ... (Stefan 2: 149)

In the excerpt, Stefan describes his students’ need to “understand the themes of a text” - the key ability measured for the English subject at the current national college entrance exam. To him, it cannot be taught with English as the medium of instruction. While the scheme intends to change his practices, Stefan’s belief about students’ needs affects his attitude and, thus, his attitude will not change until his perception of the needs changes. His comments again highlight the impact of the educational context on teachers’ adoption of the promoted practice, as highlighted by many researchers including Wedell (2003) and Park and Sung (2013). In addition, his comments support the previous research emphasising the role of teachers’ educational beliefs in their pedagogic practice (e.g., Borg, 2006; Tsui 2003).

In summary, regarding the impact of the certification on those three areas, that is, awareness, knowledge and skills, and attitude, two patterns are observed across the two elements of the promoted teaching practice, that is, emphasis on teaching English in a communicative way and using English as the medium of instruction. First, there were some reported changes but they were rather limited in their scope. Second, the effect of the certification differed across teachers. Out of the five focus teachers, three reported new or increased awareness of the promoted practices and two reported increased knowledge and/or skills needed to adopt such practices. Three reported attitudinal change, but it was either reinforcement of prior attitude or development of positive attitude from a relatively neutral position. No participants report change of their attitude from negative to positive. Among those other participants who are not focused on in this chapter, those who have participated in the certification and discuss their changes, that is, Irving and Anny, also exhibit similar patterns of change.

Limited impact is partially explained by ineffective execution of the certification including inefficient communication of the goal and distribution of the opportunities to participate in the scheme. Differing impact was partly due to

differences in their previous knowledge, and partly due to their views of effective education drawing on their knowledge of the learners and the educational context. These findings confirm findings from previous research. For instance, researchers who investigated the impact of teacher evaluation schemes on teachers, including Coskie and Place (2008), Sikes (2009), and Wragg, Wikeley, Wragg and Haynes (1996), found that teachers perceived the impact of the schemes differently. Also, a part of such differences in professional development across teachers was explained by teachers' previous knowledge and perspectives and the contextual constraints (e.g., Freeman & Johnson, 1998).

### 8.2.2 Practice

**Communicative lesson.** Concerning the fact that a positive attitude is a prerequisite for adopting the promoted teaching approach in “normal” lessons, only Felicity and Sam who were positive about the communicative lessons have potential to put communicative lessons into practice. However, even these two participants say they will not adopt the promoted communicative lessons because they believe they are irrelevant to their current teaching context. Felicity explains the mismatch between the promoted lesson and students' needs:

...In senior high school, the students are under extreme pressure about the (CSAT) [national college entrance exam]. Therefore, they want the teachers to go over the previous CSAT items, analyse them, and teach how to tackle them, the skills. And the TEE is really the opposite of [what students' want]. For the case of reading lessons, [in TEE lessons] there won't be any translation and the overall meaning of the text will be discussed, the meaning of words will be guessed. But the students find it frustrating. Also, as for boy students, even after reading and translating the whole text sentence-by-sentence, they cannot get what the theme is, so they want such translation... (Felicity 3:3)

Felicity thinks that the students do not want or need communicative lessons, which are characterised by her as containing no translation, getting the gist of the reading passage, and guessing the meaning of vocabulary. Instead, she argues

that they want what they see as useful for the CSAT, which is test-taking skills. This again highlights the mismatch between the promoted practice and the reality of school as perceived by the practitioners, which may have been disregarded during policy writing. This issue of what is expected of teachers and what the context is conducive to is also picked up by Sam. He thinks that the type of communicative lesson that the TEE scheme promotes is not easy to adopt, because the resources necessary for such lessons, i.e., textbooks with communicative tasks, are not available. Therefore, it becomes an additional burden to prepare such lessons, as he says below:

I don't always get to use [task-based activities] in the lessons. Well, anyway, I used them a lot because it was an open lesson. In real lessons, I can't use them much, not yet. And now the *activities*, in the textbook the suggestions for the *activities* are not well provided. The *activities* in the textbook are exercise type. And to do task based *activities*, teachers themselves should prepare them, which is not easy to do every lesson. (Sam 3: 10)

Here, Sam is contrasting two types of activities, exercises versus task based activities, perhaps borrowing concepts from research on task-based learning (e.g., R. Ellis, 2000). The former focuses on learning a grammatical item through controlled practice of using the item, whereas the latter emphasises completing a task which involves expressing students' own meaning. Sam says that he does not often use task-based activities in his usual lessons, even though he used it in the assessed lessons. He says that the activities provided in the textbook are exercise type, thus, the tasks that he thinks are promoted by the evaluation schedule can only be done with extra work from the teachers' side.

This idea that the adoption of the promoted approach during the assessed lesson was simply undertaken for the certification is shared by others. In fact, three out of these four candidates present what they have done in their assessed lessons for the certification as something that is qualitatively different from their usual

lessons, which they do strategically in order to obtain the certification. For instance, Felicity says:

You shouldn't show the usual lessons...Selecting the material which is far less than what is covered in usual lessons – even two paragraphs are too much - and then reviewing the content using different activities; this seems to be what suits the TEE rubric. But in reality, if you do such lessons, you cannot cover all you need to, and you cannot teach students the reading strategies [which are necessary for the national college entrance exam]. (Felicity 5: 156, 158)

Felicity did what she thought was required to pass the assessment, even though she thinks student needs are not served by the promoted lesson. Felicity perceives the promoted practice as irrelevant to the context. First, it requires that the lesson cover very little content, despite the fact that the current college entrance exam requires cramming in as much information as possible, and despite the fact that teachers are expected to cover the whole textbook (P.-G. Kim, 2004; Son & Choi, 2008/9). The assessed lesson also does not allow her to teach reading strategies, which she considers as very important for students' success in the college entrance exam.

These participants' comments confirm the previous findings about observed lessons in Korea. They are "for showing what [teachers] prepared for the [observers]", which they "rehearse" beforehand (Hayes, 2012a, p. 102). Their reported strategies replicate strategies of teachers in other contexts who find the practices promoted by an evaluation scheme irrelevant to their context: they are following the letter of the law but not the spirit of the law, which was discussed in Chapter 4 (e.g. Duke, 2009; C. Hall & Noyes, 2009). They also emphasise the difficulty of direct importing of pedagogical practices that were developed in one context into another, which practice was heavily criticised by some researchers (e.g., Canagarajah, 2005; Pennycook, 1994). Finally, they also confirm the previous finding that curricular innovation requires cultural or systematic change as discussed in Chapter 4.

**Medium of instruction.** Only Rima and Felicity expressed positive attitudes toward the adoption of English as the medium of instruction (Rima had already used English as the medium). Felicity, whose attitude changed through the certification, however, does not think adopting English as the medium of instruction is plausible. Felicity says:

Charles the instructor also says that he does not want 100% TEE, but at least 5% or 10% of the talk, which is what he wants and aims at...when I was attending the training, I thought “The senior students have only to practice answering questions [in preparation for the college entrance exam].”...That is, the context is really important, and my current context is not favourable to TEE. Particularly at high school... (Felicity 3:13)

...If the students feel the need, then they might want it. However, under the CSAT, there is no such [need]. The activities are perceived as a nuisance. The students say “Please analyse the sentences.” Or “Please translate the sentences.” (Felicity 5: 214)

Felicity’s belief that students need to prepare for the national entrance exam, despite the fact that she agrees to the benefit of using English as the medium, keeps her from practicing the promoted change. On the other hand, she helps students “practice answering questions” or develop test-taking strategies and “analyse” and “translate the sentences” in given texts because the CSAT is mainly on reading skills. It is notable that she is acting on her knowledge of learners and contexts. At the same time, however, it seems partly it is her misconception which prevents her from committing to the TEE agenda, because the official stance of the government in terms of medium of instruction does not exclude using Korean in class, even though this stance was not communicated effectively.

It is also notable that the instructor himself acknowledges the impracticality of adopting English as the main medium of instruction as mentioned previously. Despite the official recommendation by the SMOE to use English at least 80% of the lesson on average (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2007, p. 13) (see

6.2 for detailed discussion), the instructor is only recommending 5 - 10%. This negative view about teachers' prospective adoption of the promoted practice is shared by Eugene, the other instructor who was interviewed. Eugene also thinks that teachers will go back to their usual practice once they are certified. Both of these instructors think that the context is not ready and not conducive to using English as the medium of instruction. Comments from Felicity and the instructors are very telling data which illustrate the creative and complex nature of implementation of a policy or an innovation, as was argued by researchers of policy process including Ball et al. (2012) and Markee (1997): instructors' understanding of the context and the teacher learners affect how they present the policy on the medium of instruction, which may further reinforce teachers' views of irrelevancy of the promoted practice and thus what is taken up becomes something qualitatively different from what was planned.

The view that the major barrier to adopting English as the medium is the unfavourable context is also shared by Sam, who works at a junior high school where the national college entrance exam has less presence than in senior high school. He says:

First of all, as you said, those who have been hired within the last 5 or 10 years have more English competence than those who were before. That's true. But the problem is that after these teachers have worked for 6 months, 1 year, and three years, under the system as it is now, I think they will become similar to those teachers of the previous... An individual can never, it's difficult to defeat, overcome a system, I think. (Sam 3: 80)

He says the current "system," which he explained in previous turns as individualistic culture where teachers have to work in isolation, is not favourable to change. He thinks that for teachers to "share their ideas or concerns about teaching English in English," in other words, "collaboration", which is missing in his context, is necessary for teachers to learn to deviate from the current shared pedagogic practice of using Korean as the major medium of instruction using the



Grammar Translation Method (Sam 3: 74). The importance noted by Sam of the opportunities for collaboration in adoption of the promoted practice is in line with previous findings (Hayes, 2012a; Palmer, 1993).

Another factor that was mentioned in relation to using English as the medium in their usual lessons was their English proficiency. For example, Felicity was quoted in the section above saying that she does not feel confident about using English as a medium. Stefan also says that he is not confident to explain the aspects that he thinks are most important for the college entrance exam in English, which is why he does not adopt English as a medium of instruction.

However, different views are also expressed by other participants on the issues of context and their English proficiency in relation to adopting English as the medium of instruction. To Rima, the context does not seem to pose any problem in adopting English as the medium. She says she has been conducting lessons in English from the very beginning of her career. Even when she was teaching senior high school students for whom passing the college entrance exam is the priority, she did her best to use English even if it is at the level of providing alternative expressions presented in the textbook. Using English as the medium of instruction in usual lessons is reported by Anny, who is not one of the teachers focused on in this chapter. She has also worked at senior high schools, and commented on students' obsession with increasing marks in the national college entrance exam. However, she used English exclusively as the medium at the beginning of her career, and she still uses English even though she has become more flexible in utilising Korean due to complaints from some students and parents that exclusive use of English disadvantages some students. During the two lessons I observed, she used English most of the time and switched to Korean only a couple of times during the lessons.

Teachers' low self-assessment of their own English proficiency does not always result in a decision not to adopt English as the medium of instruction, either. In fact, interestingly, all my teacher participants describe their English as "not good

enough.” However, as discussed above, Rima and Anny are using English as the medium of instruction (Maria who is not one of the focused teachers is also using it as the major medium). For instance, Rima expressed her low esteem on her own English proficiency repeatedly as follows:

...What can I do for other teachers? I cannot mentor teachers senior to me because of [our culture]. I should then mentor young teachers, but I am much weaker than young teachers in terms of English proficiency and in other aspects... (2: 39)

...One of the teachers who were appointed as a Master Teacher this year...my English proficiency is not even half of his. He has always worked at senior high school so he has abundant knowledge of vocabulary. I have forgotten the whole time, for almost 30 years [after I had become a teacher]. I have not had any opportunity to learn new vocabulary... (2:41)

However, she has used English as the medium throughout her career as reported above. She relates her decision to use English as the medium despite her low self-evaluation of her English proficiency to her view of self. She says, “I don’t think I have difficulty [with using English as the medium] even though I may make mistakes without awareness. From time to time I get to see my limitation, but I have a lot of guts” (Rima 1: 119, 123). Here Rima makes reference to her limited English proficiency again, but also says that she is a type of person who is not afraid of making mistakes in front of students. The same observation about guts is mentioned by Anny too. These teachers’ self-assessment of their English proficiency as not good enough may seem incompatible with their confidence in conducting lessons in English. However, co-existence of these seemingly irreconcilable feelings is reported by many South Korean English teachers as documented by Hayes (2012a). Perhaps the negative self-assessment is a result of internalisation of deficit discourse of English teachers’ English proficiency around ELT policies as suggested by him (ibid.). This inference is supported by the fact that Stefan who expressed insecurity in using English as the medium passed the

certification, and that Felicity's performance in English speaking test places her in the upper half.

The data presented can be summarised as follows. First, all teachers agree that students' priority, particularly at senior high schools, is passing the national college entrance exam. However, some teachers are using English as the medium of English in their usual lessons and others are not because the former, including Felicity, consider adopting English as the medium as incompatible with the context, whereas the latter, including Anny, do not. Second, all teachers mention their English proficiency, notably, as not good enough when they describe their current or future practice of adopting English as the medium, showing that these two are associated in their views. However, their negative self-evaluation of English proficiency affected their decision on adoption of English as the medium differently. Some present it as one factor which stops them from teaching English in English (e.g., Felicity and Stefan); others do not (e.g., Anny and Rima). For the latter, the explanation that they have the guts to make mistakes in front of students was added. These observations show that it was more about the perceived relevance of the promoted practice to the context and whether making mistakes in front of the students is acceptable for their concept of being a teacher which determined the adoption of English as the medium rather than actual features of the context or their English proficiency.

To summarise the impact of the scheme on the intended area, all four participants who are not using English as the medium currently view adopting English as the major medium of instruction as not feasible in the context. This confirms the importance of context in deciding the success of an induced change in pedagogic practice, which is emphasised by different threads of literature including teacher evaluation (e.g., Stronge and Tucker, 2003), policy process (e.g. Ball et al., 2012) and educational innovations (e.g. Murray and Christison, 2012). More interestingly, however, the data show that there are other factors which decide the impact of the scheme, that is, teachers' beliefs about effective teaching, based

on their knowledge of learners and the context, as well as their identities. The role of teachers' beliefs and identities regarding teacher change through teacher evaluation are observed by previous research studies (e.g., Coskie and Place, 2008; Sike, 2009). This theme will be picked up again in the final chapter.

### **8.3 Impact on unplanned areas: Emotional impact and shifts in identities**

One area of impact which was not planned was identified from the interview data, i.e., teachers' affect. For those who have successfully finished the certification, it enhanced their confidence and security. For instance, when I asked about her view of the changes after her certification, Felicity discussed her self-confidence when she was talking with her supervisors:

Felicity: Didn't I tell you before? I do this kind of work [tasks assigned to a teacher who is certified at an advanced level] because it helps me build my power in my school, a private school. It still has that meaning.

Researcher: Mm, how does having more power help you? Do you have more freedom?

Felicity: That's what I thought. I don't gain more freedom time-wise, but I could secure it in terms of conducting my own lessons. When the educational office sends an official notice, the head or deputy head teacher does not understand that 'the direction for educational policy will be such and such.' They don't understand our lessons either. If I know things for sure, I can say to these people with confidence "We need to prepare for this and therefore we need to do this." Because of that, I think I chose to do these things.

Researcher: So you are saying you get more autonomy?

Felicity: Otherwise, the school meddles in your business. (Felicity 5: 198-202)

Felicity links having the certificate with "knowing things for sure", which enables her to make suggestions about the direction of English education of the school

with confidence. Sam, another teacher who was recently certified at the advanced level also labels certification as representing “authority” and “status.” Confidence gained from being certified is also reported in previous research on impact of professional certification on teachers (e.g. Connelly & McMahon, 2007). Another thing to note about Felicity’s comment is that she links it with her autonomy in her own lessons. She feels her autonomy is secured by the certification and the opportunities it opens for her. Such appropriation of teacher evaluation schemes is also noted by other researchers (e.g., Wragg, Wikeley, Wragg and Hynes, 1996).

The certification, however, has also negative emotional impacts. Considering that the TEE scheme involves assessment and evaluation, it is to be expected that teachers will go through certain levels of anxiety and negative feelings; however, the feelings they report having experienced seem to go beyond expected anxiety. The emotions observed or reported around the certification include frustration, betrayal, anger, being overwhelmed, worry, and distrust. The following excerpts illustrate the first four emotions:

...what meaning does it have? Teachers are not that foolish... This, whatever, this system itself, is funny... I still don’t understand why, the intention of the system, I don’t understand. (Jack 2-2:10)

On Saturdays without lessons I attended the training all day long. On Saturdays with lessons I taught students in the morning and attended the training in the afternoon. For a full month! None of the promises [to provide incentives to the certified], however, were kept. (Rima 2: 73)

[The TEE scheme] is unrealistic, invalid, well, in reality, it has little consequential validity. It doesn’t have validity or *impact*. Occurrence of this discussion, maybe, is pointing out that its beginning or start was possibly ((S bangs on the desk.)) done by those who do not know the context. We, people here, know all of this after just one year of growth ((S bangs on the desk.)) (Sam 3:92)

This policy came together with other *pushes*, English conversation lecturer, the certification of teachers will be included in the School Information System,

student choice on core curriculum, and people gasp. Those who have reached the turning point, they may have the energy to readjust, but young teachers are looking for time to adjust to these. (Stefan 2: 77)

Jack expresses his frustration with the government for not communicating the actual intention of the scheme, which he suspects is discharging those teachers without a high enough English proficiency. He also feels it treats teachers as foolish people. Rima feels betrayed because the promises for those certified such as providing advantages in promotions and financial rewards were not kept despite her investment into being certified. Sam expresses a great deal of anger as evidenced in his action of banging the desk during the interview. Part of the reasons for this negative emotion was previously explained. His expertise is ignored; inadequate people, who are mere native speakers, are hired for training the candidates so the one month he spent for mandatory training was wasted (see 7.5.1 for relevant discussion). Finally, Stefan reports feeling overwhelmed because the scheme is being added when he is hardly coping with other educational changes in the context.

Most of these emotions are symptoms of stress according to Kyriacou's (1987) explanation. He writes on teachers' stress as "the experience by a teacher of unpleasant emotions, such as tension, frustration, anxiety, anger and depression, resulting from aspects of his work as a teacher" (p.146). Such negative emotional response from teachers is often mentioned as an integral part of professional development, as well as resultant needs to support teachers accordingly (Hayes, 2012a; Palmer, 1993; Schmidt & Datnow, 2005; Waugh & Godfrey, 1993) as discussed in 3.2. This emotional cost in the form of stress raises the issue of usability, one of the quality criteria for teacher evaluation as discussed in 4.3.4; although this aspect is often ignored in calculating the cost of teacher evaluation, leading teachers to go through stress beyond the optimal level may result in burnout. Burnout in turn results in demotivation, physical illness and loss of concentration, and even in walking out of one's job (Holmes, 2005). The

emotional distress may have been the reason why some teachers in the context decided to leave the profession after a series of English teaching related policies as will be discussed below. Other than stress, distrust is also expressed by the participants. This is not desirable either, because it limits the impact of an innovation. O'Donahue (2012) finds that trust is one of the success factors of the innovation she investigated. Although she mainly describes the relationship between expatriate consultants and local stakeholders, the same seems to apply between teachers and other policy actors within my research context. Also, it has been found that the pleasantness of teacher development activity is a prerequisite for successful adoption of the promoted pedagogic practice (Muijs & Lindsay, 2008).

One reason these negative emotions were generated was the assumptions teachers read from the scheme; that is, considering teachers as incompetent as voiced by many teachers including Jack, Felicity, Hazel, Sam and Stefan, regardless of their engagement with the scheme and success of their application, as Jack and Stefan say:

...At cram schools, they teach to the CSAT, after recruiting homogeneous kids, and teach the CSAT items repetitively and continuously. However, we [teachers doing public education], as you know, do the administrative work. Comparing two groups in different situations and with different conditions, with the same standard, this comparison itself is absurd. [It is] just looking at the symptoms, *symptoms* which came from the unreasonable comparison. And the TEE was suggested as the solution or a reaction to it... (Jack 2-4:1)

Is this really not trying to rank us? Well, they may say, "It's because your English isn't good enough. Can you do TEE?" They just talk in the way that will tempt the parents. So we are pushed to the limit. So we say, "Ok, we will do it. We will do it, so you won't trouble us anymore." That's the reason I did it. (Stefan 2: 35)

Jack reads the deficit view from the TEE scheme, which comes from unfair comparison of outcomes from education of the two sectors, that is, private and

public education. He decided to ignore the provocation through not engaging with the TEE scheme; however, he finds it unpleasant to live with the “absurd” and “unreasonable” discourse. Maria also expressed similar feelings about teacher evaluation schemes including the TEE certification. The deficit discourse forces some teachers, including Stefan, to prove their ability through certification.

It is also notable that their concern is generated by the fact that raising English competence of teachers has been a goal of a series of related policies that have been implemented previously and that are planned for the future (see section 6.1 for detailed discussion of related policies), which theme is shared by teachers such as Maria, Stefan, and Sam. Ball et al. (2012) argue that policies which have affinity form an ensemble and exert a different impact. The fact that there have been policies sharing the same goal forced teachers to be aware of the shared agenda and to feel pressured at the least, even if it did not prompt action.

Another reason for these negative emotions is the feature of the context, where different innovations require the attention of teachers. Sam says:

...doing work without *incentives* or inducement, avoiding such work is extremely natural. It's because one has to distribute or allocate limited time, ability and efforts...Expecting people to continuously contribute to English education after certification, I think it is a very simple-minded view. (Sam 3: 44)

He is pressured to divide his resources of time, abilities and efforts, because, according to his previous remarks, he is being evaluated by four different evaluation schemes (see section 2.4 for related discussion), and because he belongs to three different departments in the school which all require his commitment. In this context, the expectation for the certified to contribute to development of English education without any incentives is an expectation he cannot meet. His comments reemphasise the role of context on the impact of a curricular innovation as discussed in Chapter 4.

It may be argued that these feelings are short-term and will soon wear off;



nevertheless, however short-term they are, it is undesirable that the teachers should go through these negative emotions without any support, a situation lamented by Park and Sung (2011) about educational innovations in the context. What is more alarming, however, is that for some participants, the certification process left long-term emotional scars which radically affected the person's view of oneself. I contacted a teacher, Ashley, who has gone through the certification process but was unable to obtain the certificate. Almost two years after, she related the experience with much embarrassment. She even felt ashamed. Ashley says:

After I failed it, I started to look at myself objectively. 'I was reckless. There are many people who are good, are superior to me.' I was ashamed of having given [the TEE certification] a try. Anyway I am [...] 'I should stay low-key doing just what I am asked to do at school. I should not try to stand before others.... I should stay low key.' That's what I got to think. (Ashley 01:15-02:00)

Ashley says she started to look at herself "objectively" after the failure and as a result of this objectivity she considers herself as "reckless" and not deserving "to stand before others". I was very disturbed to see someone who was once a leader of other teachers deciding to stay low-key. She even later added that she realised that her expertise does not lie with English education. She internalised the negative evaluation from the certification, as English teachers did the negative discourse about their English proficiency as argued by Hayes (2012a). She even over-generalised this negative evaluation to her overall expertise in ELT, not just what was assessed during the assessed lesson. Setting aside the truth value of her self-evaluation and her interpretation of the certification outcome, the negative impact on her emotions and sense of self seems to question the validity of the scheme due to its wash back effect. After all, the aim of the scheme was developing teachers further, not in comparison with others, but with one's previous abilities. For this participant's case, the scheme totally eliminated the motivation for continuous development that she once possessed. In addition, she detached herself from English education, revealing a significant negative impact

on her professional identity.

Even those who have not gone through this certification were affected more drastically. The aim of the TEE certification as well as other English teaching related policies are often misrepresented as advocating exclusion of L1 and explicit grammar instruction in many policy documents and in the media as discussed in section 2.8. This marginalises the expertise of senior teachers. Traditional teaching style, in which most senior teachers have expertise, features teaching to the national college entrance exam that involves explicit grammar instruction and using Korean as the main medium of instruction as discussed in the section. Teacher education introduced how to use English as the medium and to teach in a communicative way only in 1990s and such training became a formal requirement by the government through policies published in mid-2000 (e.g., Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2005a; Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2006). Against this background, many English teachers with lower oral proficiency felt they were undervalued, resulting in a loss of self-confidence. As a consequence, considerable numbers of English teachers who are advanced in age seek early retirement (Sam, 3: 78) and change their careers, including those who have been leading teachers (Rima 2: 79). One can easily find a newspaper article about early retirement of English language teachers due to this new emphasis on oral proficiency in different regions. For instance, Hankuk Gyoyuk Sinmun [Korean Educational Newspaper] reports that more and more teachers across the nation sign up for early retirement and the first two reasons given were the introduction of teacher evaluation and emphasis of productive skills in English language education (S. K. Kim, 2012).

Participants' narrations of their experiences and perceptions of the impact of the scheme in unplanned areas emphasise the importance of investigating how a scheme is realised, rather than its design. Some features of the scheme have different meanings in context than when it was on documents; some aspects are not even realised as Rima has pointed out; the realised scheme may bring about

changes that were not expected but are of grave importance such as loss of confidence or even leaving the profession.

#### **8.4 Discussion of findings**

Overall, the scheme expects teachers to adopt communicative lessons using English as the medium in a way prescribed in the evaluation schedule and build needed abilities, rather than to critically engage with the suggestions and make personal informed judgments about what to do with the suggestions. To return to the three concepts of the abilities of teachers as discussed in section 3.1, it seems what is planned to be measured and thus promoted by the TEE scheme is *competences* in discrete skills identified by the scheme, and/or *effectiveness* in achieving the goals set by the government, rather than *expertise*.

The scheme has some impact in the intended area. The most successful results came from awareness-raising, even though their understanding of the exact requirement regarding the promoted practice differed across teachers. In terms of building abilities, it seems to have only limited impact, because only Felicity and Rima (and Irving who was not included in the main informants for this chapter) mention learning, which is limited to conducting communicative lessons; none reported learning in relation to using English as the medium. Those applicants who did not mention their learning all passed the certification successfully. This may support the previous argument that it is not teachers' abilities that deter them from using the promoted style of lessons but the contextual constraints at least for these applicants, as discussed in Chapter 4. In terms of attitudinal change, it was also not very successful, because attitudinal change, if any, concerns development of a positive attitude when the previous position was neutral. The TEE scheme did not change the views of people who were negative about the promoted practice. In terms of practice, nobody reports their intention to change the way they teach in their usual lessons in the near future. What is also noteworthy is that all participant teachers experienced negative emotions; one

even went through a significant change in their professional identity. Overall, the scheme is not as effective as it set out to be.

Part of the reason for this ineffectiveness comes from the fact that some aspects of both design and realization of the scheme were not conducive to change. As discussed in 4.1.1, many factors that ensure success of an innovation as identified in Chapter 4 were not built in to the scheme. For instance, there were problems in diffusion of information, choice of the beneficiary of the certification, and human resources management, and crucially the context was not considered, as some participants complain. At the same time, the findings confirm previous research findings that teachers' beliefs and identities affect teacher change (e.g., Coskie and Place, 2008; Sikes, 2009).

Viewing Muijs and Lindsay's (2008) teacher development scale that was discussed in section 3.2, participants' use of the new knowledge and skills presupposes cognitive and affective changes when there is a mismatch between teachers' current practice and the promoted. Their model captures the reasons for all participants' reservation against adopting the promoted teaching in their usual lessons in the near future. As accounts of Sam and Felicity show, the teachers were not persuaded that these new ways of teaching will be beneficial to students. In other words, the teachers consider that currently the most important goal for students is to pass the national exam, which will be crucial for their career.

The fact that major reasons given for postponing adoption of the promoted practices include their care about students' welfare provides an interesting insight into the certification procedure. Assuming that the ultimate accountability of teachers lies in serving the needs of the learners, as argued by McNeil and Coppola (2006) (see 4.2.5 for relevant discussion), and the essence of professionalism is making an informed judgment and enacting that judgment (Leung, 2009) (see 3.1.3 for relevant discussion), the scheme has become an arena where the teachers show that they are conscientious practitioners with independent professionalism. This observation also has an implication for

evaluating the success of the scheme: the fact that some of the stated aims of the scheme are not achieved does not necessarily mean that the scheme has failed. If teachers' reservations about adopting the promoted changes are justifiable, it is rather desirable that they have, in fact, exercised their independent professionalism, chosen not to accept all of the promoted practices, and have not abandoned the true needs of their students.

Additionally, it was argued that partial changes such as building the foundation for future changes when the context is ripe, including awareness-raising and increasing knowledge and skills, should count as success of an innovation in Chapters 3 and 4. As well, the picture drawn about the impact of the scheme in this chapter may change in the future. According to Rima:

...[Teachers] put efforts to use English. In addition, lesson evaluation by students and parents is a part of the [Teacher Development] Appraisal. Because of this, teachers should teach English in English at least twice a year [on school open days]. But if teachers teach in English only on those days, they become a laughing stock; therefore, they try to [use English as the medium] in usual lessons. It may be difficult, but most [of teachers] do not teach English in 100% Korean. They teach a considerable part, at least about half of the lesson, in English. (Rima 2: 125)

Rima is arguing that the Teacher Development Appraisal (TDA) scheme which involves parents and students in evaluation of teachers is pressuring all English teachers to adopt English as the medium, because part of the evaluation concerns observation of lessons where teachers are expected to use English as the medium. Rima presents an assumption about English language teaching, which is different from what has been discussed by other teachers: that is, now educational focus is on using English as the medium of teaching English rather than on helping students pass the national college exam. If her observation that all teachers are working on this new assumption is true, the TEE certification in conjunction with other initiatives to change English education is creating 'a second order effect,'

that is, a new context the scheme should enter. This may change teachers' views of the relevance of the practice promoted through the scheme which, in turn, may change their practice accordingly. As discussed above, some teachers have developed some abilities needed for conducting lessons in a communicative way; some have developed or reinforced positive attitudes toward either communicative lessons or using English as the medium. Therefore, the possibility cannot be excluded that the promoted practice may be adopted by teachers, once the consensus about the appropriate way to teach English is formed in line with the teaching practice which is promoted by the scheme.

### **8.5 Chapter summary**

The discussion in this chapter shows that the TEE scheme appears to have achieved its aims only partially. The realised scheme was qualitatively different from what was intended in plan, and thus impacted on teacher development in a complex way. It is notable that the impact varied across different aims, which may be the reason that many evaluation studies of impact of a certification - which usually measure overall impact rather than impact on specific subfields and degrees of it - do not show any results. This confirms the suggestion by Towndrow, Silver, and Albright (2010) that most innovation agenda are too ambitious, as well as the observation by Kiely (2001) that teacher change may be more fine-tuned than is often expected by its initiators. If the data of the previous research studies on the impact of ELT innovations are reanalysed with the lens which allows for a partial impact and degrees of impact, they might lead to different evaluation of those innovations. The discussion also shows the complexity involved in changing teaching practice using certification, and suggests that the realised certification scheme, rather than the scheme in plan, should be evaluated and adjusted to ensure its impact (Stronge and Tucker, 2003).

Now that the design, the realisation and the impact of the TEE scheme have been discussed, the final chapter will synthesise the findings to identify the factors

which affect the realisation and impact of a curricular innovation in the form of certification, and seek the implications for teacher development and certification.

## Chapter 9      Conclusions

### 9.0 Introduction

While in a growing number of contexts curricular innovations in the form of teacher evaluation are being conducted, much less has been written about how such evaluations are implemented and what impact they have on teachers and their teaching. This thesis sets out to investigate the realisation process and impact of a teacher certification scheme called Teaching English in English (TEE) which aims to change English language pedagogic practice in individual classrooms. This research draws on a range of perspectives, through linking together a number of different data sources including interviews with different stakeholders and observation data, along with policy documents, practical documents, and reports related to the scheme. As well, it draws on my multiple membership competence in most of the fields related to this certification; I have been a teacher, textbook developer, teacher educator, teacher assessor, and policy adviser in the context.

Synthesising various types of data and using my multiple membership reflexively, I have been able to develop an understanding of the certification procedure from multiple angles, based on which understanding I have sought answers to the following interrelated set of questions:

1. What impact does a teacher certification scheme such as the Teaching English in English (TEE) in South Korea have on English as a second language teachers, their beliefs, and their practices?
2. What factors influence the effectiveness of such a scheme?
3. How could the scheme be improved at the levels of design and implementation?



This final chapter returns to this set of research questions, drawing on insights generated from discussions in the previous chapters. It reviews the effectiveness of the certification in its design and realisation (9.1) and its impact (9.2) in order to form the foundation to discuss the factors that have influenced the effectiveness of the scheme, particularly the prism of beliefs and identities teachers bring with them to interpret and deal with the scheme (9.3 & 9.4). Then I draw out the practical and theoretical implications of the findings (9.5 & 9.6). The thesis finishes with my afterthoughts on this journey of PhD research (9.7).

### **9.1 Effectiveness of the TEE scheme: Its design and realisation**

In Chapters 6 and 7, the effectiveness of the TEE scheme has been discussed in terms of its design and realisation. First of all, the legitimacy of two of the three aims was challenged. The first aim, developing teachers' expertise to develop students' communicative competence, was problematised for its limited understanding of pedagogic practices and for its suggestion to adopt pedagogic practice which is developed from another context. Pedagogic practice is conditioned by far more things than teachers' abilities to adopt certain approaches, such as contextual limitations and the educational culture, as argued by many researchers (e.g., Freeman & Johnson, 2008; Kiely, 2012). Pedagogic practice which is effective in one context does not necessarily work in another without adaptation (see in particular Clandinin & Connelly, 1995; Canagarajah, 2005).

The actual process designed and realised to achieve the stated aims has been evaluated. To borrow the terms of quality criteria of teacher evaluation, in its design the TEE scheme had varied degrees of validity across its aims. It had some construct validity for its first aim, that is, to develop teachers' expertise to develop students' communicative competence. During assessed lessons, to analyse the evaluation schedule, it measures whether the teacher is able to provide students with opportunities to use English. However, to analyse the procedure of the assessment of the lessons, the construct validity of the basic level assessment was

breached because the assessment was conducted through microteaching which has little resemblance to usual lessons. The scheme displays limited content validity because it narrowly conceptualises communicative lessons as those following the PPP framework in the evaluation schedule of the assessed lessons.

For its second aim, to promote lessons conducted in English, it exhibits limited construct validity. Despite its well-justified position in the policy document regarding the medium of instruction, which acknowledges the complementary roles of the first language (L1) and the second language (L2) in the L2 classroom (see V. Cook, 2001; Hall & G. Cook, 2012), the evaluation schedule bans use of L1 in the assessed lessons and measures teachers' ability to conduct lessons without utilizing L1 as a resource. And it has little validity in terms of the third aim, that is, curbing families' expenditures on private education, due to its misunderstanding of families' motivation for their investment into private education as discussed in 6.2.

During the realisation process, some aspects of validity were breached and other aspects were enhanced. In terms of achieving the first aim of the scheme, developing expertise of teachers to improve students' communicative competence, the construct validity built into the evaluation schedule did not lead to consequential validity, partly because the ability tapped into in the assessed lessons was often misrepresented as English proficiency of English teachers, rather than the ability to conduct lessons to develop students' ability to use English. This was particularly the case for the basic level candidates who had little opportunity to adjust this misunderstanding; some of the advanced level candidates learned of this focus during their training. On the other hand, the limited content validity in the planning stage, due to its narrow conceptualisation of communicative lessons, was rectified through the realisation process because the assessors creatively engaged with the evaluative activity and gave pass marks to any lessons which provided opportunities for students to use English, rather than merely limiting it to lessons which followed PPP (as argued in 7.5.7). For the

second aim, the misconception that L1 use is not allowed was not redressed through the realised assessment. It was rectified for some advanced level candidates during the mandatory training where one of the instructors encouraged teachers to use L2 only to the extent possible, essentially at a minimal level. This way, teachers finished the certification with varied conceptualisation of promoted practice regarding the medium of instruction, which in turn led to differing perceptions of its relevance and its evaluation, as discussed in 8.2.1.

Reliability was not taken into account in much detail during the planning stage. In particular, for assessment of teaching at the beginner level, reliability was ensured only in terms of mechanical comparability in the setting of the assessment, trying to provide the same stimuli across participants and to control contextual variables through setting it as a microteaching. It was argued that such attempts address only superficial features but not the actual experience. One of the reasons given which supported this argument was the fact that presenting in front of the same group of students did not make the lessons comparable: despite the fact that the teachers taught the same students, they were in a sense teaching different groups because students' feelings and attitudes toward the topic of the lesson changed through being taught five times on the same text. During realisation, training of the assessors and the standardisation procedure were not sufficient, which aggravated the issues of reliability inherent in its design. However, this observation about limited reliability of assessment of teaching should not be interpreted as recommending further rigid specification and standardisation of the procedure. On the contrary, there is a need for more qualitative assessment that allows scope for flexibility. There is also a demand for clear communication about the process and for provision of sufficient training of assessors, while ensuring validity; that is, designing the assessment in a manner that better reflects the complex realities of actual teaching settings. Ensuring optimal reliability and validity is difficult, however, because these two quality criteria are in reality often in tension, as Kiely (1998) observes in a case study investigating the relationship between programme evaluation and teachers' pedagogic practice.

Usability varies across different phases and stakeholders. Obtaining the pre-requisite TEE index was extremely difficult for some teachers due to contextual limitations; it created much work for schools; however, it cost little for the government because it simply needed to gather the report from the schools. The written test as well as assessment of teaching for the basic level was conducted with relatively little investment from both teachers and the government. The training and assessment of teaching for the advanced level created tension because the teachers had to go through these procedures during term time. The government also paid considerable sums of money to fund the training.

In sum, the evaluation results differ across levels of certification (i.e., basic vs. advanced), evaluation tools used (i.e., the TEE index, the written test, and the assessed lessons), and abilities of focus (i.e., the ability to conduct lessons in a communicative way vs. the ability to conduct lessons in English).

## **9.2 Effectiveness of the TEE scheme: its impact**

The evidence gathered in this research indicates that the TEE scheme has had a partial impact in the planned areas. For the first aim, increasing teachers' expertise needed to conduct communicative lessons, the scheme has succeeded in raising awareness of some teachers about the need to provide students with opportunities to use English, but not for others, particularly for non-participants and basic level candidates, due to lack of communication or miscommunication as summarised above. This varied understanding affected what candidates gained through the certification procedure. Some basic level participants reported having gone through the procedure without realising the communicative aspect of the first aim, thus the certification became a missed opportunity of learning in that aspect (see 7.4.1). Half of the candidates, however, reported to have gained knowledge and skills needed for communicative lessons. Two candidates reported changes in their attitudes toward communicative lessons, although the change was simply reinforcement of the previous attitude. However, all candidates expressed reservations about adopting communicative approaches in "normal"

lessons. Thus, the scheme had some success in preparing teachers for the communicative lessons promoted by the scheme; however, it failed to persuade any teachers to practice it at present.

For the second aim, expansion of English as the medium of instruction, the scheme succeeded in raising teachers' awareness of the government's emphasis on improving teachers' English (see 8.2.1), which reinforced teachers' motivation to improve their proficiency. In terms of providing opportunities to improve English proficiency, it had minimal impact because the basic level candidates were provided with little help except for online training which provided some examples of classroom English. Even for the advanced level candidates, a one-month training course can have only limited impact, if any, on their English proficiency. From the point of providing training to improve English language proficiency of teachers, as Jack pointed out, it seems the resources were not effectively managed. Rather than mandating the certification based on individual teachers' needs, the government required all teachers to be certified. This created competition for certification, with a result that those who are proficient in English gained the opportunity to participate in the advanced level of certification, which in turn led them to gain opportunities to be trained overseas.

The scheme had unintended impacts regarding promotion of English as the medium of instruction, as discussed in 8.3. The scheme caused negative emotions such as stress and distrust of the government. Moreover, it aggravated some teachers' feelings of inadequacy. Without this scheme, as non-native speaking English teachers, most teachers have a "deficit" view of their own English proficiency, to borrow Kachru's (1991) term, as attested to in the previous chapter by all teacher participants describing their English as not good enough. For some teachers, the failure to be certified led to a complete loss of self-confidence and change in their identity. The emphasis on English proficiency led some teachers even to leave the profession, irrespective of their participation in the scheme. As some participants suspected, one outcome of the scheme has been to drive out

teachers who do not have confidence in English proficiency and to create openings for new teachers with higher English proficiency. This may have contributed to the government's aim to improve the expertise in conducting lessons in English for the profession of English teachers as a whole; however, it raises the issue of the ethics of the evaluation, an area of concern beyond the scope of this thesis.

The third aim was difficult to realise because it was based on a mistaken assumption that families' expenditures on private education was from dissatisfaction with the public education system as discussed in Chapter 6. Due to the failure of the scheme in terms of this aim, the government is resorting to new policies to address this problem, including the introduction of the National English Ability Test which was mentioned in Chapter 2.

### **9.3 Factors which affect the effectiveness of the scheme**

Four main factors which affect the effectiveness of the TEE scheme were identified: the design of the scheme, the realisation process of the scheme, the immediate context (e.g., circumstances at the school where one works) and the overarching context (e.g., the educational culture which emphasises helping students obtain higher marks at college entrance exams). The four aspects squarely overlap with factors which affect success of an innovation as identified by Wedell (2009), that is, characteristics of an innovation, its implementation process, the context and the wider system.

Findings on how these four aspects affected the effectiveness of the scheme were in line with findings reported in previous studies on ELT innovations (e.g. Kiely, 2012; Markee, 1997; Rubdy, 2008; P. Woods, 2012), as discussed in Chapter 4. For instance, with regard to the effect of the design of the scheme, the written test did not help much with effectively developing teachers' ability to conduct English lessons, due to the fact that it only used items which measure declarative and theoretical knowledge, a limitation shared by many written tests which aim to

measure teachers' procedural knowledge of teaching (see 6.3.2). The realisation process reduced the effectiveness of the scheme as well. For instance, the ineffective communication of its promotion of communicative teaching left many teachers unaware of this aim, despite the fact that the scheme incorporated this aim in its design stage. This resulted in depriving teachers of opportunities to engage with the agenda. As another example, inaccurate budgeting of resources for realising the scheme contributed to its lack of effectiveness; allocating one hour for both assessor training and standardisation of the assessment procedure was far from sufficient, which created multiple problems and tensions regarding the validity and reliability of the assessment of teaching as highlighted in 7.4.3 and 7.4.4.

The context also affected the effectiveness of the scheme. The TEE index aimed to promote teachers' continuous professional development; however, as section 7.2 illustrates, it turned out to be a hindrance to teachers' access to being certified, and inadvertently deprived some teachers of one route for professional development, that is, being TEE certified. This was because teachers at the senior high schools, particularly those who are considered as competent and committed to helping students pass the college entrance exams, participate in duties which are in conflict with the schedule of teacher training programmes which is necessary for obtaining the index.

However, there is an additional factor the literature on innovation has given less attention than it deserves, that is, teachers' beliefs and identities, which were evident throughout teachers' accounts presented in Chapters 7 and 8. As discussed in Chapter 3, the dialectic relationship between teachers' pedagogic practice and their cognition and identities is already established. However, it did not receive enough attention in the context of a curricular innovation. The following section highlights how teachers' beliefs and identities functioned as prisms through which teachers interpreted, translated and interacted with the TEE scheme, and how they influenced the effectiveness of the scheme.

It should be noted that even though I do not discuss the beliefs and identities of other actors such as the policy makers, the assessors, and teacher trainers, their beliefs and identities also affected the process and impact of the certification. To illustrate, the assessors departed from the observation schedule to favourably assess the lessons which did not adopt the PPP framework but adopted other approaches such as Task-Based Language Teaching which provided students with opportunities to use English.

## **9.4 Prism of beliefs and identities**

### **9.4.1 Beliefs about educational context**

It was discussed that the educational context, both at an individual school level and at a national level, has affected teachers' engagement with certification and adoption of the promoted teaching practice. However, it was not always the 'objective' reality per se that influenced their decisions but, rather, teachers' interpretations of and beliefs about the context that affected the effectiveness of the scheme. This observation was illustrated through comparison of two teachers in a similar context in Chapter 7. Both Stefan and Jack work at a private school where the school has the authority to terminate the contract, in contrast to state schools, for which the authority is with the regional government, and thus the job is secured by law. Stefan applied for the certification because he thought the threat to lose his job was real, having observed his colleagues being laid off, whereas Jack thought his job was secure because of trust from the colleagues and his close relationship with the vice-chairperson of the school board, and thus decided not to engage with the scheme. As another example, the large number of educational policies demanding shifts in focus of English teaching from grammatical knowledge and receptive skills to productive skills pressured all participant teachers to note the discourse, but affected participants differently in terms of their engagement with certification. The series of policies motivated some participants, including Felicity and Rima, to use the certification as an opportunity to develop professionally: they felt that these policies have changed



future students' English proficiency and their needs, and thus they should ready themselves for these future students. On the other hand, Maria felt that responding to all demands from various policies was beyond her capacity, and the certification was not included in the list of policies that she decided to respond to.

#### **9.4.2 Beliefs about effective teaching**

Teachers' views of the promoted practice, which is related to beliefs about the context, form a strong basis for their perceptions of and engagement with the TEE scheme and, thus, its impact. Most teachers who work at senior high schools reject teaching in a communicative way because they think it does not serve the immediate needs and wants of the students. They consider that the College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT) is the overarching influence on the expectations of the usual lessons and, accordingly, an effective English lesson is one which emphasises expanding vocabulary and explicit understanding of a text through translation, along with building test-taking strategies. On the other hand, junior high school teachers exhibit more positive attitudes toward communicative lessons because they link it with motivating students, although actual adoption was also deterred by lack of support, such as insufficient materials as pointed out by Sam.

It was also argued that teachers' perceptions of compatibility between the practice of using English as the medium and their views of effective teaching affected the potential impact of the scheme. All teachers who work at senior high schools prioritise helping students with gaining higher marks at the CSAT. However, perceptions of the compatibility between this goal and the promoted teaching differ. Teachers including Stefan and Felicity consider these two aspects of practice mutually exclusive and, thus, report their intention not to adopt it until the CSAT changes; others including Rima and Anny see them as independent and thus are using English as the medium despite the same ultimate goal of helping students achieve better marks at the CSAT.

However, as was noted in Chapter 8, perceived relevance of adopting promoted practice is partly shaped by one's misconceptions. For instance, some teachers including Sam think that the scheme does not allow Korean, or students' first language, in the lessons and judge the promoted practice as irrelevant to their teaching context. This misconception is due to ineffective communication of government policy on allowing some use of Korean in English lessons. This shows interaction between various factors, in this case, the implementation and teachers' beliefs.

### **9.4.3 Teacher identity**

What is notable about this last aspect is its reciprocal relationship with the scheme. Teacher identity affects teachers' engagement with the certification, and their experience with the certification in turn affects their identity. For instance, during assessment of teaching, Felicity was not only focusing on passing the assessment but was considering how students would feel during the lesson: she did not want them to feel that they were being 'used' (see section 7.5.7 for detailed discussion). She foregrounded her identity as a teacher even during the assessment, although she did focus on passing the certification at the second attempt. When she had to repeat the certification procedure because she had failed to be certified at the first attempt, she coped well with it because she thought it was a learning process and, for her, learning is a very important part of her teacher identity.

The certification affected participants' self-concepts. Both Felicity and Sam report enhanced self-confidence through the certification. It could be inferred that Rima takes pride in using English as a medium of instruction despite her limited English proficiency, perhaps because the scheme acknowledges her practice. On the other hand, one participant who had tried to obtain the certificate and failed formed a new self concept as a teacher who does not have expertise in English and who, as a consequence, decided to stay low-key and no longer stand in front of others. He

stopped engaging with the scheme and decided that he would pursue a new area of expertise.

## **9.5 Practical implications**

### **9.5.1 Curricular innovation**

The value of innovation is in what happens in individual classrooms. Changes in pedagogic practice in individual classrooms involve changes in teachers, themselves (e.g., Park & Sung, 2013; Wedell, 2003). As argued in 6.2, the view of teacher development that is implied by the TEE scheme is that acquiring the competences needed to conduct lessons in English in a communicative way is sufficient to enable teachers to engage with the promoted pedagogic practice. However, this is a misconception of teaching and learning to teach. As Roberts says, “There is far more to learning to teach than picking up a toolkit of techniques and some specialist knowledge. It is a process of socialisation...by which people selectively acquire...the culture.” (Roberts, 1998, p. 36). In addition, it may have to involve resisting the educational culture. For instance, in the Korean context, what is expected of teachers from students is the ability to help students with obtaining better marks in the college entrance exam, which is perhaps beyond the power of individual teachers. Finally, changes in pedagogic practice involve teachers changing their beliefs about teaching that link with their professional identity, which brings out feelings of insecurity because they have to walk on an unfamiliar path, as discussed in Chapter 3.

Therefore, a curricular innovation which aims to change pedagogic practice in individual classrooms should consider the complexity involved in the change coming from the interactions among the innovation, teachers, and the specific context. The design of such innovation should involve change in the wider culture such as views of effective teaching or what education should accomplish (Li, 2001; Rubdy, 2008) and should provide emotional support through creating a culture of collaboration among teachers (Hayes, 2012a; Palmer, 1993). However, more importantly, the implementers of the innovation should respect teachers’ beliefs

and their expertise. They should actively seek opportunities to discuss the relevance of the innovation with teachers. In cases where teachers adhere to default practices, rather than blaming them for their inadequacy, the innovation should be re-examined, acknowledging teachers' expertise coming from their knowledge of the context and the learners, and the possibility that they are exercising professional discretion or "independent professionalism" to ensure benefits for their students in the current context (Leung, 2009).

### **9.5.2 Teacher certification**

This thesis has found that the certification process does not necessarily reflect the plan, and all the participants, regardless of their roles, jointly create a certification which is qualitatively different from the plan. This is partly because the details of certification schemes are not always planned in advance, and even if they were, the actors change the process through their own interpretations of the scheme and their own values. Also, it has been found that the certification impacts areas that were not foreseen, such as the identity of teachers.

Any certification scheme should build into its design, from the start, the process of evaluation of its effectiveness as well as its impact, as suggested by Stronge and Tucker (2003) and M. Wallace (1991). As documented in Chapters 7 and 8, the plan of teacher evaluation takes its shape and manifests its impact only after it hits the ground, as does any type of educational policy, as argued by many researchers including Ball et al. (2012) and McNeil and Coppola (2006). Thus, allowing revision after investigation into the realised procedure will ensure better validity and reliability of the scheme as experienced by teachers. This additional investment will, after all, reduce the unseen cost paid by teachers undergoing certification who do not need to do so and also reduce unnecessary emotional cost, as reported in section 8.3. Additionally, particularly when it involves marginalising the abilities that have been traditionally considered as important aspects of teaching expertise and privileging new abilities, it should make provisions for those who are marginalised in the new context created through the

certification. Therefore, one of the suggestions made by Markee (2007) that any curricular innovation should institute a channel for those who manage the innovation and those who are requested to participate in it is relevant here: a communicative channel between the certifiers and those expected to be certified should be established.

### **9.6 Theoretical implications: Extension of policy enactment theory**

Policy enactment theory has provided useful perspectives and language in investigating and describing the certification process which forms a part of a package of policies. The theory challenges the assumptions that any plan of a policy will be implemented as designed and that deviation from a plan is a failure. Rather, it acknowledges the fact that different actors in the realization process of a policy will jointly create the policy, because they have to “interpret” and “translate” the policy texts which are too simple and brief to incorporate all the contingencies in reality as they are written against idealised contexts and idealised people rather than real schools and real teachers. Policy enactment theory also emphasizes the importance of the context, which is confined by its materials and resources and inhabited by different people with different propensities. It captures the influences of other small and big policies on the implementation and impact of any individual policy within a dynamic context such as South Korea. It also suggests that the experience and impact of the policy differ across participants. As such, the theory helped me gain a deeper insight into the phenomena under investigation and provided language to capture all of these intricacies.

However, it has its own limitations. Perhaps partly because the theory was developed based on the policy enactment of schools, it only seems to view individuals as persons in a group. The theory focuses on individuals’ propensities which are shaped by their roles in their schools and by their educational philosophies which lead them to take up different roles when they enact the policy. It illustrates and explores the tension amongst people who take up those

different roles, for instance, between enthusiasts who invest in the realization of a policy and critics who maintain counter-discourses. To do justice, it also acknowledges the possibility of people taking up multiple roles and different roles in relation to different policies, thus accepting the possibility that people's identities can change.

Still, policy enactment theory does not acknowledge the fact that individuals can be a site of conflict, and thus can take multiple roles on a debate within their mind regarding a single policy. For instance, when they decided whether or not to participate in the certification, my participant teachers considered various factors at the same time, and made a decision against contending reasons for and against certification. Looking at the case of Felicity, she mentions the changing needs of learners, her own passion for learning which forms her professional identity, and her concern about job security, which ushered her to engage with the TEE scheme: here she becomes an enthusiast. At the same time, she reports the tension coming from her guilt for not spending enough time with her children and not being as committed as other teachers to helping students pass the college entrance exam, and she takes the role of a critic engaging with the certification procedure. Teachers are very complex beings themselves, reflecting their professional and personal trajectories, their resources, their competences, the support they are given for change, and the different roles they play in different communities. This tension and debate within individual actors needs recognition in the theory.

In addition, while the theory has its roots in constructivism, and emphasises the role of interpretation of individual actors, it does not fully explore why and how those actors interpret the same policy differently. This thesis has demonstrated that teachers, alongside other actors, bring in a multi-faceted prism created by their beliefs about, among others, the context, effective English language pedagogic practice and their professional identities, all of which refract and bend their perception of the TEE scheme, a curricular innovation in the form of

certification. Therefore, I argue that the theory should be extended to recognize the complexity added by individual actors' identities and cognition to the factors they have identified as shaping the policy process, that is, the features of the policy, the context, and the existence of different actors. This will further expand the explanatory power which the theory already exhibits.

## 9.7 Afterword

Different researchers could identify and suggest very many roads I might have travelled, and I am aware of some of those roads that I did not travel. However, I do not regret my chosen path and I believe that I will be able to travel the others another day.

For the past four years, the PhD has not been simply a part of my life. I was living in, for, and with the PhD. Demanding as it has been, I truly cherish this experience because I have learned many precious lessons. Most importantly I have learned of humility, because I was forced to see that I have thrived on the sacrifice of those who care about me. I learned that I am a blessed person to have so many people willing to share their time, expertise, and many other parts of themselves without expecting repayment.

Second, I have gained more understanding about conducting research. I learned that I need not be afraid to ask for more information when participants are vague about some issues: before, I assumed that people do not expand an idea because they do not want to; however, having repeatedly returned to the participants to gather more information, I realised that in many cases they stopped talking because they were not sure of the usefulness of the further information they could offer. I will be more sensitive to local customs rather than mechanically following the stipulated rules on research. For instance, I did not give any gifts to my participants at the beginning of the data collection because I stated that I would not give any rewards to my participants in the ethical approval form. This denied me an access to a research site which was previously granted to me,

because not giving a small gift when asking a favour is considered very rude by many South Korean people. After all, research activity is also a social event (Shah, 2004), and a rule written in one context cannot necessarily be transferred into another context. Finally, I would not in the future be overly concerned about making decisions on every step of research thinking that any single mistake will lead to disaster: different decisions made conscientiously lead to different roads, and there is no perfect choice.

Last but not least, I could lay down my guilt from participating in the development of the TEE scheme, which seemed rather condescending to teachers in its design. I tried my best to reflect what I think was the voice of teachers. However, I felt I should have done more, and I felt responsible for the teachers represented by the colleague who made a call because she was worried over the new context created by the scheme. Through this research, I have found that the meanings originally written down by the research team about the scheme were read through different prisms of beliefs and identities of various actors and were refracted, bent, and polarised at different sites, including educational offices, teacher training centres and assessment centres. Thus, the realised scheme became something very different from its design. The teachers also labelled and experienced the scheme through their own lenses of their beliefs and identities. Therefore, most teachers did not go through the most depressing results I had imagined. For most teachers it was considered as some nuisance to play along with the streams of events happening in their personal and professional lives.

Thus, despite the various difficulties and the emotional turmoil I went through while doing the PhD, I feel this was an emancipating experience and thoroughly enjoyable. I am thankful that I decided to travel on this road that is grassy and wanted wear at this phase of my life.



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## Appendices

### Appendix 1. Evaluation schedule for the Teacher Promotion Scheme (Teachers)

Area	Sub-area	Content
Aptitude and attitude	Personality as an educator (10 points)	Does the person exhibit commitment to the profession as well as responsibility and pride about the duties?
		Does the person exhibit integrity and manners as a teacher?
		Is the person dedicated to the profession based on his or her understanding of and affection for students?
		Is the person respected by students and parents?
	Attitude as a public servant (10 points)	Does the person exhibit appropriate educational principles?
		Does the person exhibit diligence and take initiatives?
		Is the person cooperative among colleagues and open-minded towards students?
		Does the person perform tasks voluntarily and actively?
Performances in and abilities for tasks	Teaching (40 points)	Does the person do the utmost to prepare and research for the lessons?
		Does the person exhibit enthusiasm in improving teaching methods and in teaching?
		Does the person creatively organise the curriculum and use teaching materials effectively?
		Does the person plan for assessments and use their results effectively?
	Guidance in school life (20 points)	Is the person enthusiastic in developing students and career guidance?
		Does the person do his or her utmost during school events and in implementing behaviour policy in and out of school?
		Does the person make efforts to understand students and their

		concerns and provide appropriate guidance?
		Does the person take appropriate care to ensure individual students' health and safety during educational activities?
	Research and tasks (20 points)	Does the person enthusiastically participate in research and education in order to develop professionalism?
		Does the person perform tasks appropriately and reasonably?
		Is the person active in performing tasks which contributes to achieving the educational objectives of the school?
		Does the person improve and adapt given tasks creatively?

## Appendix 2. Areas of pedagogic content knowledge of language teachers drawn from practical literature

Areas of PCK			Sub-areas of PCK
G E N E R A L  P E D A G O G Y	Plan ning & prep arati on	Syllabus	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Analyzing needs and context <p>Able to identify and reflect the learner needs and the expectations and limitations from the context in designing the syllabus</p> </li> <li>Setting goals and objectives <p>Able to establish general goals and specific objectives to meet the needs of the learners</p> </li> <li>Syllabus planning <p>Able to decide the type and elements to be included in the syllabus and present it in a way to help learners achieve the goals and objectives</p> </li> <li>Syllabus evaluation <p>Able to evaluate the process of planning, designing, and implementing it based on the evidences gathered</p> </li> </ul>
		Individual lessons	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Setting lesson objectives <p>Able to set objectives of the lesson considering the needs of the learners, the context, and the syllabus</p> </li> <li>Choosing materials and activities <p>Able to select activities, tasks, materials, resources and aids to realize the objectives and to motivate students</p> </li> <li>Developing the lesson logically <p>Able to sequence the activities and tasks to realize the objectives</p> </li> <li>Time management <p>Able to allot enough time for each task or activity</p> </li> </ul>

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Problem anticipation and solution</li> </ul> <p>Able to anticipate problems and think of possible solutions</p>
	class atmosphere	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Taking pre-emptive measures</li> </ul> <p>Able to employ pre-emptive measures for establishing atmosphere conducive to learning such as building rapport with learners, setting class rules and providing motivation to follow those rules through success experience</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Taking reactive measures</li> </ul> <p>Able to take appropriate actions for discipline which exhibit immediacy, calmness, behaviour-focus, directions for positive actions for learners, respect for learners, and consistency</p>
	Conducting a lesson	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Grouping students</li> </ul> <p>Able to group students in the way that suits the activities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Running tasks/activities</li> </ul> <p>Able to make learners ready for the lesson points</p> <p>Able to set up the activity</p> <p>Able to run the activity</p> <p>Able to monitor learners in performing the tasks</p> <p>Able to give appropriate feedbacks to learners during the tasks</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Grading language</li> </ul> <p>Able to adjust the language to the level of learners' understanding</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Taking contingent actions</li> </ul> <p>Able to adapt the lesson plan to suit the unexpected needs</p>
	Evaluation of a	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Evaluation of teaching</li> </ul>

	lesson		<p>Able to evaluate practice of teaching critically and plan adjustment and supplement for the lesson in question , and plan for the following lessons accordingly</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Evaluation of learning</li> </ul> <p>Able to evaluate learning during and after lessons and use the information gathered for assisting learning and improving practice of teaching</p>
	Professional development		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Self-evaluation</li> </ul> <p>Able to evaluate the self in terms of knowledge, practice, and professionalism, and identify areas to further develop</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Improving the areas that need further development</li> </ul> <p>Able to take actions to improve the identified areas</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Developing together</li> </ul> <p>Able to work with colleagues to develop together</p>
	E L T	Pronunciation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Perception</li> </ul> <p>Able to help learners perceive segmental and suprasegmental sounds</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Production</li> </ul> <p>Able to teach production of segmental and suprasegmental sounds utilizing controlled, guided and/or communicative practice</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Error correction</li> </ul> <p>Able to correct the errors learners make in terms of the target sound features</p> <p>Able to identify and correct global errors</p>
		Vocabulary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Introduction of vocabulary</li> </ul> <p>Able to help learners to link new words with the existing concept or words they already know</p>

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Expansion of the vocabulary</li> </ul> <p>Able to help learners to learn different aspect of vocabulary other than meaning such as syntax, collocation and style</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• (Practice using the vocabulary)</li> </ul> <p>Able to give learners the opportunity to use the target words communicatively</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Developing strategies to be independent learners</li> </ul> <p>Able to help learners to be independent through teaching different skills and tools for self-study</p>
		Grammar	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Presentation of the grammar</li> </ul> <p>Able to present the grammar in a context</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Practice of the grammar</li> </ul> <p>Able to provide learners an opportunity to practice the grammar using it in real communication</p>
	lan gu age Ski lls	Listening	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Understanding the text</li> </ul> <p>Able to explain cues for understanding the text including stress and paralinguistic features</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Purposes of listening</li> </ul> <p>Able to provide opportunities to practice different listening strategies based on the purposes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Flow of listening task</li> </ul> <p>Able to motivate learners to listen actively through interaction before, during and after listening</p>
		Speaking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Building blocks</li> </ul> <p>Able to provide learners with materials for given task including vocabulary, functional expressions, and paralinguistic features</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Purpose of activity</li> </ul> <p>Able to use a variety of activities that suits the purpose, i.e., accuracy or fluency</p>

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Monitor and feedback</li> </ul> <p>Able to monitor learners' performance and give feedback in accordance with the purpose of the activity</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Encouraging participation</li> </ul> <p>Able to adopt measures to ensure equal participation in a group activity</p>
		Reading	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Understanding the text</li> </ul> <p>Able to explain cues for understanding the text</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Purposes of reading</li> </ul> <p>Able to provide opportunities to practice different reading strategies based on the purposes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Flow of reading task</li> </ul> <p>Able to motivate learners to listen actively through interaction before, during and after listening</p>
		Writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Style</li> </ul> <p>Able to assist the learners to develop the style including the punctuation and layout</p> <p>Able to assist the learners to employ these skills systematically in writing the final draft</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Content</li> </ul> <p>Able to help learners develop ideas about the given topic using various techniques such as pre-discussion and mind-mapping and provides necessary language</p> <p>Able to assist learners to write according to the characteristics specific to the chosen genre</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Feedback</li> </ul> <p>Able to provide feedback on students' writing with the purpose of developing the writing skills and content</p> <p>Able to provide skills to incorporate feedback effectively and revising the drafts</p>

### **Appendix 3. Sample PRAXIS-II ESOL item and suggested revision**

#### **Sample item**

(Educational Testing Service, 2012, p. 6)

2. Listen to an ESOL student read the following sentence.

(Taped excerpt) He finally went to bed. (The student pronounces “bed” as [bet].)

The error in the pronunciation indicates a problem with

- (a) final intonation patterns
- (b) places of articulation
- (c) voiced and voiceless sounds
- (d) word stress patterns

#### **Suggested revision**

2. You hear some students read “bed” as [bet]. They all differentiate /t/ and /d /sounds when they hear them. You want to teach how to pronounce /d/ correctly. Which of the following would suit your purpose best?

- (a) Explain the different features of voiced and voiceless sounds and show photos of vocal cords when /t/ and /d/ are pronounced.
- (b) Play the video clips of a person’s face pronouncing ‘bed’ and ‘bet’ which were taken from the front and from the side.
- (c) Pronounce /t/ and /d/ with your hands on Adam’s apple, tell students how different it feels in each case, and ask them to try the same.
- (d) Make the students listen to the minimal pairs which contrast /t/ and /d/ sounds.



#### Appendix 4 Interview and observation data initially collected & background information of the participants

Data Type Participant 1-12 Teachers 13-17 Others	O: audio recorded, V: video recorded F: field note, M: teaching materials  INT: interview, OBS: observation (Hour: Minute: Second)							Note  M: minutes	State  /Private school	Middle/ High school	Sex	SES of the School (Low/Middle, High)	TEE application:  None (X)  /Basic (A)/  Advanced(M)
	INT 1	OBS 1	INT 2	OBS 2	INT3	INT 4	INT5						
1 Jack	1:55:31	O,F, M	1:08:40	O,F	1:32:23			OBS: 45 M each	P	M	M	ML	X
2 Maria	41:09	O,F	1:01:51	O,F	30:08			OBS: 45 M each	S	M	F	MH	X
3 Emily	1:12:11	V*,F						*Not allowed to observe, only the recording was given, 45 M	S	M	F	L	X
4 Ginny	47:34	F		V*				*Recording of the previous 2 lessons given, 45 M each	S	M	F	M	A

<b>5 Irving</b>	<u>1:48:18</u>	F	22:31	V*,M	Note only (About 30 min)			OBS1: 30 M, *OBS2 recording only: 50 M	S	H	M	ML	M
<b>6 Anny</b>		F, M		V*, F,M,	28:02			OBS1: 50 M *OBS2, recording of a class next week, same content, 50 M	S (P)	H	F	ML	A
<b>7 Janet</b>									S	H	F	ML	X
<b>8 Felicity</b>	Note only  (About 30 min)	V,F, M	Note only  (About 45 min)	V, M	<u>1:23:50</u>	13: 07	1:22: 40	OBS1&2: 50 M each	P	H	F	M	A & M

<b>9 Sam</b>	Note only (About 1 hour)	V,F, M	Note only (About 15 min)		56:37				S (P)	M(H)	M	ML	M
<b>10 Hazel</b>	Note only (15 min)	V						OBS:15 M	S	M	F	?	A & M
<b>11 Stefan</b>	Note only (15min)		<u>1</u> :09:57						P	H	M	MH	A
<b>12 Bonnie</b>	Note only (About 10 min)	V, F, M	Note only (About 15 min)					OBS: 50 M	P	H	F	M	M
<b>13 April, Supervisor</b>	<u>1</u> :24:57		33:7						N/A	N/A	F	N/A	N/A

<b>14 Charles, Trainer</b>	47:41								N/A	N/A	M	N/A	N/A
<b>15 Eugene, Trainer</b>	1:13:03								N/A	N/A	M	N/A	N/A
<b>16 Rima, assessor</b>	(Email exchange)		51:30						St	M	F	M	M
<b>17 Kitty, assessor</b>	7:49		31:01						St	M	F	H	N/A
<b>TOTAL LENGTHS OF DATA</b>	<b>31 Interviews:</b> About <u>25</u> hours:59 minutes :03 seconds (Recorded: <u>22</u> :04:03, Unrecorded: About 3 hours 55 minutes) <b>16 Observation:</b> <u>11</u> hours:45 minutes (Recorded: 9 hours 40 minutes, Unrecorded: 2 hours 5 minutes)												

## **Appendix 5. Sample entries in research diary**

### **Sample entry 1. Oct 26, 2010 Getting access**

Talked with Maria over the phone. When I told her that I am investigating the ELT expertise and its evaluation, she talked about her experience at a teacher training. She said the trainer was a teacher with two years' experience. She was showing how to use the ICT in English education, and she felt it was really shallow and was not applicable in many contexts. Maria couldn't help but think that teachers who are novices or who are from private schools have limited understanding of ELT. So she suggested to me to think about what I want to investigate first and whom, and how to choose the participants. Otherwise, she pointed out that I would present a much distorted view of ELT expertise...

### **Sample entry 2. 2010 November 2 (I): Anxiety over data collection & the book by Richards (2007)**

I couldn't sleep well because I was too anxious: this is the first day of my official data collection! I got up at 3:30am and started reading Keith Richards (2007). Just before I came back to Korea I read the chapter on interviews, which seemed to be very insightful and practical, so I wanted to read the chapter on observation before I meet my first participant.

As I expected, the book is really practical and made me make mental notes on several points such as the importance of the space and objects at the site, the importance of getting used to the field, need of preliminary observation, therefore, noting the relationship between the space, pattern of behaviours, and relationship among the observed, the un-spelled out rules, getting permission from all who are possibly impacted, particularly the principals, explaining the projects in plain terms, and need of honing the observation skills through practice even in daily lives.

**Sample entry 3. 2010 November 2 (II): Interview 1 - Jack**

...Jack wanted me to comment on his lessons and give some suggestions on how to improve his pedagogical skills. When I said I will mull over the observations and interviews and then give my opinion, he insisted that I give my opinion right away twice more, saying I should have formed some opinion already. It confirms the views suggested by the literature (Richards, 2007) about how the observation by a colleague for a research is viewed: it is viewed as an evaluation. He said I was not being truthful, and he was ready to receive any kind of criticism... One thing very interesting was that I did not really evaluate his class. I was rather just being one of his students...

### **Appendix 6. Sample notes on my assumptions: ELT expertise**

In my view, English language teaching expertise consists of the knowledge of students, context, target language proficiency and language learning sense. Thus, when the teacher is at the work of teaching the students, the teacher knows what to teach from a learned or acquired sense of language learning; what to teach to aid the students to reach the goal of mastering the language. But, at the same time, the teacher needs to teach the students what is required from the curriculum set by the government or the test system so that they can come out well in the educational system, which always functions as the ordering system. In doing so, knowledge of the students, in terms of their motivation or of how to motivate them when some of the students are not self-motivated, as well as the tools and skills necessary to engage the students in class, are all necessary. The expert teacher knows when to push in order to reach the goals set by the teacher him- or herself, and when to yield to the immediate needs or wants of the students. Of course, when the teacher sets the goals, the teacher forms an arena for negotiating the goals, or, when the goals are not negotiable, helps the learners to accept the set goals as their own goals. That is, the teacher tries to persuade the students that the set goals are not imposed or not unrelated to them, but are their own.

...When planning for the day, the teacher decides the procedure that will help her reach her teaching objectives. It typically includes the warming-up stage, where the learners activate the schema or learn about the topic in a pleasant way, and then the intro of the topic in depth, followed by the familiarization with the topic through experiencing the topic personally, and reviewing the topic. When doing these, at least one stage is planned to be exciting so that it will leave the learners with favoured and indelible memories of the topic.

**Appendix 7. Sample tabling for collation of descriptive data: Different motivation for being certified**

Participant	Motivation												Notes
	Study	Expertise	Aging	Ready	Job security	Opportunity (context)	Trust	Peer	Required	Knowledge of the scheme	Utility personal	Incentives official	
Jack			V		X		X					V	old teacher Eng X
Maria					X	X			X Will disappear				
Janet				X					X Will disappear				Failure of competent T, Eng X
Emily	(?)					X				X		V (training)	
Ginny				V									
Stefan					V		X		V				
Anny	V							V					
Hazel			V										Before I get old



Rima		V	V	V							V relocation	V (promotion)	Sooner better, Master T, Eng X
Sam		V	V									V	
Felicity	V	V	V		V	V			V  policy never disappears		V power	V	Sooner better, old teacher Eng X
Irving	V		V								V relocation		old T Eng X, before young Ts are allowed

**Appendix 8. Sample tabling for collation of interpretive data: Attempt at analysing the categories using Dörnyei's model (2007)**

Participant	Motivation							Subsidiary reasons			Notes
	Ideal		Ought to/feared		Experience						
	Study	Expertise	Aging	Required	Opportunity (context)	Ready	Others' experience	Trust	Knowledge of the scheme	Incentives official	
Jack			V				Not real difference	X		V	old teacher Eng X
Maria				X Will disappear	X						
Janet				X Will disappear		X	V (difficult)				Failure of competent T, Eng X
Emily					X		? (not much info or influence)		X	V (training)	
Ginny						V					
Stefan				V(job security)				X			
Anny	V			V(peer)							
Hazel			V								Before I get old

Rima		V	V			V				V (promotion)	Sooner better, Master T, Eng X
Sam		V	V							V	
Felicity	V	V	V	V policy never disappears, job security	V					X(다른선생님)	Sooner better, old teacher Eng X
Irving	V		V								old T Eng X, before young people are allowed to do it

## Appendix 9. Information Sheet and Consent Form (English)

*REC Reference Number:* REP (EM)/10/11-4

### YOU WILL BE GIVEN A COPY OF THIS INFORMATION SHEET

#### ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING EXPERTISE: ITS EVALUATION AND IMPACT

We would like to invite you to participate in this postgraduate research project. You should only participate if you want to; choosing not to take part will not disadvantage you in any way. Before you decide whether you want to take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what your participation will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information.

- The aim of this study is to investigate the nature of English language teaching expertise and its evaluation in the Korean context. This investigation may prove to be of use to the community through informing teacher education and evaluation policies. As such, the teachers who are recruited are those who are acknowledged as experienced and expert English language teachers in their own schools or in the professional community.
  
- If you agree to take part in this research, the researcher will interview you for approximately one to two hours over two to four separate occasions and will observe your classes on two to four occasions at a time convenient to you. All the information obtained in this way will be recorded onto a data form that can be encrypted. The data may be used for future publication, and in case any publication about the data ensues, your name and your institution as well as any identifying details will be altered or deleted, so that your identity will remain anonymous.
  
- This research will not place you at any risk greater than that encountered in your daily life. By participating in this project, you will have an opportunity to share your expertise with others in the teaching community and to contribute to raising the quality of teacher education programs and teacher evaluation systems. Only the researcher will have access to the original data, and the supervisors of the researcher will have access to the anonymous transcription of the data in order to assist the researcher in writing the dissertation. In case a paper based on this research is published, all due care will be taken to assure that your identity will not be revealed,

and you will have the opportunity to review the paper before publication to make sure that the concealing of your identity is to your satisfaction.

- For any questions, please contact the researcher by e-mail at [tae\\_hee.choi@kcl.ac.uk](mailto:tae_hee.choi@kcl.ac.uk) or by phone at 4420-7848-3835.

It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you decide to take part, you are still free to withdraw at any time, without having to justify your withdrawal in any way, before the researcher begins writing up her dissertation in January of 2011, upon which withdrawal all collected data will immediately be destroyed. You will be given a copy of this information sheet as well as the signed consent form.

If you subsequently find that this study has harmed you in any way, you can contact King's College London, using the following details, for further advice and information: the researcher, Taehee Choi, through her e-mail at [tae\\_hee.choi@kcl.ac.uk](mailto:tae_hee.choi@kcl.ac.uk), or by phone at 4420-7848-3835; the researcher's supervisor, Martin Dewey, through his e-mail at [martin.dewey@kcl.ac.uk](mailto:martin.dewey@kcl.ac.uk).

## CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS IN RESEARCH STUDIES

Please complete this form after you have read the Information Sheet and listened to an explanation about the research.

**Title of Study:** ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING EXPERTISE AND ITS EVALUATION



**King's College Research Ethics Committee Ref:** REP (EM)/10/11-4

Thank you for considering taking part in this research. The person organising the research must explain the project to you before you agree to take part. If you have any questions arising from the Information Sheet or the explanation already given to you, please ask the researcher before you decide whether or not to participate. You will be given a copy of this Consent Form to keep and to refer to at any time.

Please tick  
or initial

• I understand that I can withdraw from this research project at any time, without having to give any reason, by notifying the researcher before January 2011. In the case of my withdrawing, all data collected from me will be destroyed.

☐

• I consent to being interviewed and having my classroom observation recorded.

☐

• I consent to having my personal information processed for the purposes explained to me. I understand that such information will be handled in accordance with the terms of the Data Protection Act of 1998.

☐

• The information I have submitted may be published at some future date as a report, in which case I will be consulted first before such publication occurs. My confidentiality and anonymity will be maintained in all instances, and my identity will be concealed in any possible future publications.

☐

• I agree that the researcher may use my data for future research, and I understand that any such use of identifiable data would first be

☐

**reviewed and approved by a research ethics committee.(As with this project, any such published data would not be identifiable in any way.)**

**Participant's Statement:**

**I \_\_\_\_\_**

**agree that the research project named above has been explained to me to my satisfaction and I agree to take part in the study. I have read both the notes written above and the Information Sheet about the project, and I understand what the research study involves.**

**Signed**

**Date**

## Appendix 10. Information Sheet and Consent Form (Korean)

### 연구 설명서

REC Reference Number: REP (EM)/10/11-4

이 설명서는 연구에 참여하시는 선생님께 한 부가 제공됩니다.

주제: 영어 교육 전문성과 그 평가

선생님을 본 학위논문 연구에 초대 드리고 싶습니다. 원하는 경우 참여하실 수 있으며, 참여하지 않으시는 경우 어떤 불이익도 없음을 알려 드립니다. 참여를 결정하시기 전, 이 연구의 목적과 참여 과정을 일거 보시기 바랍니다. 다음을 주의 깊게 읽으시고 원하시는 경우 다른 분들과 상의하셔도 좋습니다. 명확하지 않은 점이나, 더 알기 원하시는 점이 있으시면 말씀해 주세요.

- 이 연구의 목적은 한국 상황에서의 영어 교육 전문성과 그의 평가를 알고자 하는 것입니다. 이 연구는 교사연수와 평가 정책에 기여하고자 하며 따라서 학교나 교직사회에서 경험이 있고 전문성을 지니셨다고 인정되는 분들에게 참여를 부탁드립니다.
- 만약 이 연구에 참여하시면, 연구자는 선생님께서 편한 시간에 선생님과 인터뷰를 할 것이며 선생님의 수업을 참관할 것입니다. 이 과정에서 얻어지는 모든 자료는 보안을 유지할 수 있는 형태로 저장될 것입니다. 자료가 앞으로 출판될 경우, 선생님의 이름과 학교 등 선생님을 알아 볼 수 있는 모든 정보는 변경되거나 삭제될 것이며, 따라서 익명성이 보장될 것입니다.
- 이 연구는 선생님께서 일상 생활에서 접하시는 위험 이상에 처하도록 하지 않으며, 이 연구에 참여하시는 것은 선생님의 전문성을 교사연수나 교사



평가를 향상시키는 기회가 될 수 있을 것입니다. 본 연구자만이 자료를 볼 수 있으며, 연구자의 지도교수는 익명화한 자료만을 접할 것입니다. 이 자료를 근거로 출판할 경우 선생님의 신분이 노출되지 않도록 할 것이며, 선생님께서 원하시는 경우 출판 전 미리 읽어보실 기회를 드리겠습니다.

- 문의 사항이 있으시면, 연구자의 이메일 [tae\\_hee.choi@kcl.ac.uk](mailto:tae_hee.choi@kcl.ac.uk)로 연락을 주시거나, 4420-7848-383 로 전화 주시기 바랍니다.

참여는 본인의 선택이며, 참여하시기로 결정하신 경우에도 원치 않으시는 경우 2011 년 1 월 이전에는 언제든지 참여를 철회하실 수 있습니다. 철회시 선생님과 관련된 모든 자료는 폐기될 것이며, 참여하시는 분께는 서명하신 참여 동의서의 사본과 이 설명서가 제공됩니다.

만약 이 연구를 통해 해를 입으신 경우, 런던의 킹스칼리지로 연락을 주시기 바랍니다. 연구자인 최태희의 이메일 [tae\\_hee.choi@kcl.ac.uk](mailto:tae_hee.choi@kcl.ac.uk)나 전화 4420-7848-3835 로, 또는 지도교수 Martin Dewey 의 이메일 주소 [martin.dewey@kcl.ac.uk](mailto:martin.dewey@kcl.ac.uk)로 연락하실 수 있습니다.

## 참여 동의서

## CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS IN RESEARCH STUDIES

연구설명서를 읽으신 후 연구자의 설명을 들으시고 이 형식에 서명해 주십시오.

연구제목: 영어교육 전문성과 그 평가

연구 윤리 심의 연번: REP (EM)/10/11-4



이 연구에 참여해 주심을 진심으로 감사드립니다. 연구자는 선생님께서 참여하시기 전 연구에 대한 설명을 해야 하며, 만약 연구 설명서나 연구자의 설명에 관한 질문이 있으시면 참여를 결정하시기 전에 연구자에게 확인하시기 바랍니다. 이 동의서의 사본이 선생님께 제공되므로 원하시는 경우 언제든지 참조하실 수 있습니다.

서명란

- 본인은 2011 년 1 월 이전에는 언제든지 이유를 설명하지 않고 참여를 철회할 수 있음을 알고 있으며, 철회시 본인과 관련된 모든 자료가 삭제될것임을 알고 있습니다.. ☐
- 본인은 인터뷰와 참관되는 수업이 녹음되는 것에 동의합니다. ☐
- 본인은 본인의 신변에 관한 자료의 익명화에 동의합니다. ☐
- 본인은 생성된 자료가 출판될 수 있음을 알고 있으며, 출판시 본인의 익명성 확인을 위해 사전에 조율될 것을 알고 있습니다. ☐
- 본인은 생성된 자료가 앞으로의 연구에 사용되는 것에 동의하며, 그 경우 학교 윤리 위원회가 심리 허가를 할 것을 알고 있습니다. (이 프로젝트와 마찬가지로 어떠한 경우도 익명성이 보장될 것임을 알고 있습니다.) ☐

참가자 확인:

본인\_\_\_\_\_는 위에 명시된 연구가 본인이 만족할 만큼 설명되었으며 참여하기로 결정하였음에 동의합니다. 본인은 위에 명기된 사항과 연구 설명서를 읽었으며, 연구 참여시 요구 되는 사항을 알고 있습니다.

서명

날짜

## **Appendix 11. Initial interview schedule (English)**

### **Consent form & reuse of the data**

#### **Context and Background Questions**

- What made you decide to become a teacher?
- So how did you train to be a teacher?
  - Teacher's qualification, language teaching and learning experience, training and teacher development undertaken
- Has your teaching changed over the years? If so, how?
- Do you feel teacher development seminars have had a lot of influence on the way you teach now? If so, can you give me an example?
- What other things were helpful for you to be more proficient in teaching?
  - How do they help you?

#### **Current department and tasks**

Age and level of students taught, students' needs (individual, institutional and wider settings & exams)

A typical school day (time, material and activities) and what the teacher thinks is special about the school at which he or she works

#### **Teaching principles and teacher development**

- Teacher's image(s) of oneself as a teacher
- How would you describe your own personal approach to teaching? How do you think your students will describe your teaching?
- "What makes a good teacher of English, in your opinion?" "What kinds of lessons do you feel are most effective?"
- Could you please tell me about your lesson that went well?
  - What was special about that lesson?
  - What made it different from more usual lessons?
  - Would the same lesson work in the previous school?
- Can you tell me about a lesson that didn't go well? What went wrong, and

why?

**ELT expertise**

- If you become a mentor for a new teacher, what do you think you will teach him or her? What other things do you think you will suggest for them to do?

**Probing questions**

Can you give me an example/another example of that?

Can you say a bit more about that?

Does that happen often?

Can you explain what you mean by X?

Do you usually do that in this way/Do you sometimes do this differently?

Why? What's the reason for that?

That's interesting – tell me more about that?

What do you think about that/how do you feel about that?

Oh, really? That's interesting?

## Appendix 12. Initial interview schedule (Korean)

### Consent form & reuse of the data

#### Context and Background Questions

- 왜 교사가 되셨어요?  
- language teaching and learning experience
- 교사 되시려고 어떤 과정을 거치셨나요?  
- Teacher's qualification, training and teacher development undertaken
- 가르치시는 방법이 처음 교사 되셨을 때랑 같으신 것 같으세요?
- 교사 연수가 가르치는 데 도움이 된다고 생각하세요? 어떤 식으로 도움이 되시는 지 예를 들어 주시겠어요?
- 다른 건 어떤 것들이 가르치시는 데 도움이 되나요?  
어떻게 도움이 되나요?

#### Current department and tasks

지금 업무 분장, 담당 학년, 아이들의 영어 배우는 동기나 열심 정도  
하루 일과, 년 중 학교 안팎으로 하는 일

#### Teaching principles and teacher development

- 자신이 어떤 선생님이라고 생각하세요? 학생들은 어떤 선생님이라고 보는 것 같으세요?
- 어떤 선생님이 좋은 영어 교사일까요?  
어떤 수업이 효과적인 영어 수업일까요?
- 최근 좋았던 수업에 대해서 이야기 해 주세요. 그 수업이 어떤 점에서 특별했나요?  
- 그런 특성을 지닌 수업은 항상 효과적인가요?  
- 전 학교에서도 효과적이었나요?
- 최근 만족스럽지 못했던 수업에 대해서 이야기 해 주세요.  
- 그 수업은 왜 안되었을까요?

#### ELT expertise

- 신규 교사의 멘토가 된다면 어떤 점을 가르쳐 주시고 싶으세요? 교사가

무엇을 알아야 잘 가르칠 수 있을까요?

**Probing questions**

예를 들어 주시겠어요? 또 다른 예는요?

좀더 자세히 말씀해 주시겠어요?

그런 일이 자주 있나요?

~가 무슨 의미인가요?

항상 그렇게 하시나요? 다른 방식으로 접근하시기도 하시나요?

왜요? 이유가 뭘까요?

정말요? 재미있네요. 좀더 이야기 해 주세요.

그것에 대해 어떻게 생각하세요/ 느끼세요?

### Appendix 13. TEE scheme: Themes, descriptions and sample quotes

Main themes	Description	Sub-themes	Sample quotes
<b>1. Decision to be certified</b>	What affected teachers' decision on whether or not they will be certified	Access to information	I heard of a clear instruction on the day of the assessment...The instructions were not written on the official notice. On the notice, only the schedule was written.
		Factors that affected their participation - Actual context - Teachers' beliefs - Teachers' identity	... The tasks that we already have to do remain, and we are told "More, more, this too, and that too." This is why [the TEE] is meaningless. What can we do? When there is no physical time and motivation.  In this situation, the [TEE] certificate divides teachers who have English proficiency and those who don't: A [basic level-certified], Non-A [not-certified].
<b>2. Views of and experience with each phase of the certification</b>	Teachers' view of each phase of the scheme, their justification for such views including their experience	TEE index system	Therefore, the [system] should be flexible. One should require training hours, after ensuring that it is possible to receive training, but the circumstances don't allow it...it should be that those who want [certification] should be allowed to participate in it
		Written test	Others say they will give up [the certification] if they have to retake the TKT, because it is too difficult. It was ok with me because I am doing a graduate degree. The TKT is not at all for ordinary

			teachers.
		Assessed lesson	I could practice the lesson with the student only about twice, and I borrowed the students...I inserted a lot of those [various patterns of interaction including pair and group work] to teach to the rubric. For instance, making the students do a skit with what they have learned.
		Speaking test	I heard that the purpose [of speaking test] is to measure English proficiency: fluency or the ability to speak [English].
		Mandatory training	For the TEE program, to be honest, I think it's a load of a crap. We're making teachers jump the hoops to get a certificate, so that they can get [the reward] training [conducted abroad]
		Post-certification	Originally, we were to be given allowances and extra points when we apply for the supervisor post, but currently, none of them are realised. We are given work to do in relation to English education: for instance, "You are advanced-level certified, so come and do this on this day." Only the Master Teachers are given monthly payment from this March.
<b>3 Impact of the scheme</b>	What results from the TEE certification	Changes in awareness, abilities, and attitudes	So should I say I got to develop the ability to understand lessons?...Well, it's the ability to understand [lessons] according to the



			rubric after all.
		Changes in pedagogical practices	If the students feel the need, then they might want it. However, under the CSAT, there is no such [need]. The activities are perceived as a nuisance. The students say "Please analyse the sentences." Or "Please translate the sentences."
		Unplanned impacts	After I failed it, I started to look at myself objectively. 'I was reckless. There are many people who are good, are superior to me.' I was ashamed of giving it a try. Anyway I am [...] 'I should stay low-key doing just what I am asked to do at school. I should not try to stand before others.... I should stay low key.' That's what I got to think.

## Appendix 14. Translation rules and sample entries for translation dictionary

### Translation rules

1. Whenever possible, word-to-word translation is sought.
2. When literal translation does not make sense, if there is an English idiom that expresses the exact meaning, it was used. If not, paraphrases were used.
3. Words, borrowed or not, that were originally used in a foreign language was written to capture the code switching.
4. Words which do not have counterparts for translation were translated with the most similar ones in meaning, and its Romanization was written together next to it in the parenthesis.
5. The syntax of the two languages, Korean and English, differ in many ways. Korean is an inflectional language, so it does not have prepositions but has postpositions; it does not differentiate numbers in many cases and does not have articles. Thus, number, tense, case, or part of the speech of the word was changed to meet the syntactic requirement in English sentences.
6. Korean often omits the subject of a sentence. In inserting the subject, try to reflect the agency and participation in the original sentence. In case the insertion can distort the meaning, put the subject in bracket to show that it was my insertion.
7. The rhythm of speaking is assimilated as much as possible, to reflect the pace of the conversation.
8. One Korean word for one specific English word; if multiple words were used for the context, they were written in the translation dictionary.

### Sample entries

N O	Entry (Romanization)	Korean	Translation (English)	Explanation of the concept
1	bohoja	보호자	caregiver	protector, in most cases, it means the parents, the prominent caregiver
2	bonmun	본문	main text	the reading passage in each chapter of the English textbooks licensed by the government for the current national

				curriculum (revised curriculum)
3	bubun	과의 한 부분	unit	reading, speaking, etc, part of a chapter

## Appendix 15. Sample of transcription and translation of an interview

((Chit chatting))

1. T: 아, 그, 지난, 아까 이제 그 비디오 선생님 수업 하신 거 보고 있었거든요. (S: 아 그래요.) 보니까, 보니까, 맨 처음 그 이렇게 *setting* 하시고, 오늘 이제 뭐 할 거다 하고 설명 다 해주시고, 음, 아, *review* 먼저 하시고. 항상 *review* 먼저 하시고 시작하세요?

T: Ah, well, last time, just before I was watching the video recorded lesson of yours. (S: Ah, yes.) To see that, to see that, at the beginning you *set up* the activities, explain what you are going to do today; mm, ah, you started with *review*. Do you always start the lesson with a *review*?

2. S: 예, 그러니까, 수업 모형 만들때 *review*를 가급적이면. 지난시간에 뭘 배웠는지를, 그, 얘기를 해야지 이제, 오늘 하는 거하고 연관성 있는, 연계성이 있으니까요. 그거 없이 하게 되면 아무래도 좀, 연속성이 떨어지니까요.

S: Yes, well, when I plan for the lesson I include a *review* if possible. Talking of what they have learned last time, well, then, it connects, links today's lesson with the previous. Without that, anyway, the coherence drops a bit.

3. T: 음악을 자주 사용하세요? 저번 수업에는, 막, 음악을, 음악을 처음 시작, *review* 할 때도 그렇고 끝날 때도 음악 틀어 놓으시고 그러서 가지고.

T: Do you often use music? For the last lesson, really, music, you used music at the beginning, for *review*, and at the end of the lesson.

4. S: 근데 뭐, 평소 수업에서는 많이 쓰지는 못 하고요, 근데 이제 그런 거, 아무래도, 이제, 학생들, 수업에 대한 부담을 줄이고 흥미를 높일때는 음악이나, *audio*나 *video*가 효과가 큰 거 같아요.

S: Well, mm, I do not get to use it a lot in the usual lessons, but, then, such things, anyway, now, it seems that music, *audio* or *visual* materials, are very effective for reducing students' stress about the lesson and increasing their interest.

## Appendix 16. Calculation of index scores from self-development activities

(Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2010d, p. 7)

Realm	Content	Points	Notes
Degree	English language education related MA	20	Not acknowledged when their periods overlap
	English language education related PhD	30	
Studying English language	Taking standardized test on English proficiency	5	2007.9.1.-2013.2.28.  Once a year (4 times maximum)
Developing TEE expertise	Obtaining TEE-A certificate	20	
	TEE Model class	5	Once a year, (4 times maximum after March 1, 2009)
	Taking the TEE-KT test	2	Once a year (4 times maximum)
	Taking the TEE-PT test	5	Once a year (4 times maximum)
Contribution to English language education	Instructor at English camp organised by the school or educational offices during breaks	5	Once a year (4 times maximum after March 1, 2009)
	Main co-teacher with a native-speaking English teacher for over 1 year	5	4 times maximum after March 1, 2009
	Conducting teacher training at programmes run by the educational office (2hr or more)	2	Twice a year (4 times maximum after March 1, 2009)

	Awards for action research (City or national level)	Gold: 20 Silver: 8 Bronze: 6	From the level of the city, region, and nation. Maximum score 25
	Development of English teaching/learning materials published by the educational office	5	Once a year (4 times maximum after March 1, 2009)
	Subject supervisor/supporter of better lessons for over 1 year	5	Once a year (4 times maximum after March 1, 2009)
	Managing the SMOE's English teaching and learning resources website for over 1 year	5	Once a year (4 times maximum after March 1, 2009)
	Awards for advancing English education from the SMOE superintendent or a higher officer	2	No limitation in terms of the date

\* TEE index can be earned from self-development activities up to 30 per year

\*Details subject to change

## Appendix 17. Sample items of the ETKT

(Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2009b, p. 6)

<부록 표 2-2> ETKT 평가문항 샘플(중등)

구분	영역	Item No.	Item	TRUE	FALSE
중등	Classroom management and activities	7	Bottom-up processing relies on the use of background knowledge.		
	Assessment	19	In terms of the theoretical framework, the achievement test is based on theories of aptitude.		
	Grammar & Syntax	29	As present perfect is a compound tense combining past and present, it is ok to use a past time adjunct as well as a present time adjunct.		
	Language skills	37	An information gap activity is an activity where learners are missing the information they need to complete a task and need to talk to each other to find it.		
	Lesson Planning	43	In the learner-centered classroom, the teacher should play a central role in the classroom activities.		
	Phonetics	51	Nasals are speech sounds produced with an open nasal passage.		
	Phonology	55	A phoneme is the minimal speech sound unit that carries meaning on its own.		
	Practice activities & Tasks	58	Substitution drill is a type of exercise in which the learners have to choose the best answer from several options.		
	Pragmatics/ Sociolinguistics	62	Pragmatics is a branch of linguistics which studies how context influences the interpretation of meaning.		
	SLA/ Approaches/ Methods	66	Learning EFL means learning English in a learner's native culture with few immediate opportunities to use the language.		
	Techniques	73	It is appropriate to correct all the mistakes learners make since it can make learners keep high motivation.		

## Appendix 18. Observation schedule for assessed lessons

(TEE training team, 2010, p. 27)

### 2010 TEE-PT Evaluation Rubric

School: \_\_\_\_\_ Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Domain		Content	Very Good	Good	Acceptable	Unsatisfactory	
Lesson Development (A)	Opening	Provides an effective and intriguing introduction to a lesson	④	③	②	①	
	Target Language	Gives clear and adequate explanations of target language (words, sentence structure, communicative functions, etc)	④	③	②	①	
		Checks learners' understanding of the target language and provides appropriate examples of the target language	④	③	②	①	
	Guided Practice	Leads the students' practice and produces the target words, or sentences by asking questions, and checks that students' utterances or answers are appropriate	④	③	②	①	
		Develops activities through mechanical, meaningful, and communicative activities progressively	④	③	②	①	
		Leads students to produce creative and spontaneous utterances or answers	④	③	②	①	
		Provides appropriate feedback	④	③	②	①	
	Activities and Tasks	Sets up and gives clear instructions for the tasks, and checks learners' understanding of the directions in class	④	③	②	①	
		Conducts whole class, group, pair, and individual activities in a balanced way	④	③	②	①	
		Tries different types of interaction (student to student, teacher to student, individual student to group)	④	③	②	①	
		Students are actively involved in the tasks, and students' utterances or output during the tasks are active and spontaneous	④	③	②	①	
		Students' utterances or output during the tasks are creative and authentic	④	③	②	①	
		Uses various and interesting tasks for learning objectives	④	③	②	①	
		Uses appropriate and authentic materials for learning objectives and executing tasks and controls the time for each task and activity	④	③	②	①	
		Closing	Reviews effectively	④	③	②	①
	Highest possible score: 60 (4 x 15)					/ 60	
	Teacher's Language use (B)	Fluency	Uses correct and proper expressions according to lesson points and situations	⑧	⑥	④	②
Uses language appropriate to the learners' level to enhance the understanding of learners			⑧	⑥	④	②	
Uses natural and authentic English with confidence			⑧	⑥	④	②	
Accuracy		Uses clear and accurate pronunciation, stress and intonation	⑧	⑥	④	②	
		Uses flawless vocabulary and grammar	⑧	⑥	④	②	
Highest possible score: 40 (8 x 5)					/ 40		
Final Score					/ 100		

Comment	Strong points		Weak points	



### Appendix 19. 4 teachers' assessed lessons: Planned & realised activities

Participants	Planned activities	Realised activities	Notes
Irving	1. The teacher presents the topic word & aims of the lesson	The teacher presents the topic word & aims of the lesson using pictures	
	2. Students match new words with paraphrases	Students match new words with paraphrases on the handout (individual)	
	3. Students unscramble new words	Students unscramble new words (whole class)	
	4. Students fill in the blanks of two paragraphs (pair work)	Students fill in the blanks of two paragraphs (individual work)	Pair work realized as an individual work
	5. Students reconstruct a paragraph (group work)	Students reconstruct a paragraph (individual work)	Group work realized as an individual work
	6. Students complete a summary of a paragraph (group work)	Students complete a summary of a paragraph (individual work)	Group work realized as an individual work
	7. Students answer comprehension questions (jeopardy game) (group work)	Students answer comprehension questions (jeopardy game) (individual work)	Group work realized as an individual work
	8. Students memorize key expressions		Activity skipped
	9. The teacher review & close the lesson	The teacher shows key expressions; presents different use of the topic word "green" in the text; replays the recording of the studied text (whole class)	

Participants	Planned activities	Realised activities	Notes
Felicity	1. The teacher reviews the previous lesson (with + noun + modifiers, e.g. with his arms crossed)	The teacher reviews the previous lesson (with + noun + modifiers, e.g. with his arms crossed)	
	2. Students guess today's topic through presented video clips & paintings	2-1 Students guess today's topic presented by video clips; The teacher presents lesson aims  2-2 New words 1: The teacher presents new words; Students write down words they do not know on the worksheet (whole class > individual work)	1. In this activity, presentation of new words is added which is not included in the plan 2. Her lesson features strong emphasis on vocabulary learning
	3. Students complete an outline of the reading passage	Students complete the worksheet of fill-in-the-blanks, an outline (individual work)	
	4. Students guess the meaning of the proverbs (group work)	Students infer the meaning of proverbs from the painting (individual work)	Planned group work was realized as an individual work
	5. Students infer the meaning of new words from the context	New words 2: matching the new words with paraphrases and Korean translation (whole class)	
	6. Students match the pictures with given strips of Flemish proverbs, of English translation and of corresponding Korean proverbs (group work)	Students match the pictures with given strips of Flemish proverbs and strips of their meaning, and then write counterpart Korean proverbs in Korean (group work)	
	7. Students check the meaning of new words from the context	New word 3: Matching new words with their paraphrases (whole class)	
	8. Students review the proverbs and	Writing down the Korean proverbs that are described	Planned group work realized as a

	vocabulary (Group work)	in the three pictures on a paper	group work in some; in others as an individual work
		Homework – to make sentences using 5 new words	Activity not planned
Participants	Planned activities	Realised activities	Notes
Sam	1. The teacher reviews the previous lesson & motivates students	Review: the students guess the topic of the last lesson after listening to a song which was given as a cue	Korean allowed but most of teacher-students interaction in English through the lesson
	2. The teacher presents the lesson aims	The teacher presents the lesson aims and activities	
	3. Students decide the team name and its logo (group work)	Students decide the team name and its logo (group work)	Students use English & Korean to express their own meaning
	4. Students do the worksheet (individual )	Students reconstruct a paragraph (individual work)	
	5. Students reconstruct a paragraph using sentences each member has brought from the wall (group work)	Reconstructing a paragraph putting together sentences each member has taken from the wall (group work)	Students use English & Korean to express their own meaning
	6. One of the member call the teacher and answer questions	One of the member call the teacher and answer questions	
	7. Students check the answer with the textbook and listen to the paragraph	Students check the answer with the textbook and listen to the paragraph	
	8. Each group read one sentence after the teacher	One person from each group reads one sentence from the paragraph (whole class)	

	9. Students match pictures with new words	Students match pictures with new words (individual>whole class)	
	10. Students match the pronouns with the referents (group work)	Students match the pronouns with the referents (individual>whole class)	
	11. The teacher reviews key points through concept checking questions	The teacher reviews key points referring back to the presented lesson aims (whole class)	
	12. The teacher previews the next lesson	The teacher previews the next lesson and gives homework – to prepare for the jeopardy game on the studied text	
Participants	Planned activities	Realised activities	Notes
Bonnie	1. Students brainstorm about a video clip that shows bad table manners (whole class)	Students describe a video clip that shows bad table manners (whole class)	A strict English only policy here and throughout the lessons
	2. Students learn new words and phrases using PowerPoint slides & memory games (group work)	Students learn new words and phrases that were in the clip (individual work)  Students do memory games with 10 new words (individual > pair > group work)  Students match pictures with the new words (individual work)	More steps added: input which prepares students for group work & reviewing the language item for consolidation
	3. Students give advice to the person in the video clip using “don’t” (whole class)	Students give advice to a child in video clips using “don’t” on table manners – addition of new expressions (whole class)	Students use of language very formulaic
	4. Students do a game of guessing the missing words in the read		Activity skipped

	strips (group work)		
	5. Students complete a comparison chart about table manners (pair work)	Students discuss the importance of knowing table manners of different countries & table manners of different countries (whole class); complete a comparison chart about table manners of three countries (pair work)	1. More step added: input preparing students for pair work 2. Pair work was realized in some, but in others it was done individually
	6. Students give the right advice for the action mimed by the presenter (group work)	Students guess the mimed manner: the team leader mines and each of other members takes a turn to give relevant advice (group work)	Students use of language very formulaic
	7. Students review expressions to give advice on table manners looking at video clips (whole class)	Students review expressions to give advice on table manners looking at video clips (whole class)	
	8. The teacher gives homework	The teacher gives homework: writing advice to a friend	

## Appendix 20. Teacher change from the certification

### Communicative teaching

Participant	Jack				Felicity				Sam				Stefan				Rima			
Areas	A	Kg	At	P	A	Kg	At	P	A	Kg	At	P	A	Kg	At	P	A	Kg	At	P
Before	○	?	?	X	○	X	○	X	○	○	○	X	○	○	X	X	○	?	?	?
After	?	?	?	?	⊙	○	?	X	⊙	?	⊙	X	?	?	X	X	?	○	?	?

\* A: awareness; Kg: knowledge; At: attitude; P: practice

\*\*○: existence/positive; X: absence/negative; ⊙: reinforcement of existing element; ?: data not available

\*\*\* Areas which the participants have identified as having changes are shaded in grey.

**Medium of instruction**

Participant	Jack				Felicity				Sam				Stefan				Rima			
Areas	A	Kg	At	P	A	Kg	At	P	A	Kg	At	P	A	Kg	At	P	A	Kg	At	P
Before	?	X	?	X	X	X	X	X	○	○	X	X	X	○	X	X	○	○	○	○
After	○	X	?	X	○	X	○	X	○	○	X	X	○	○	X	X	○	○	⊙	⊙

\* A: awareness; Kg: knowledge; At: attitude; P: practice

\*\*○: existence/positive; X: absence/negative; ⊙: reinforcement of existing element; ?: data not available

\*\*\* Areas which the participants have identified as having changes are shaded in grey.